
A G R A.

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A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. Position and area.—The district of Agra—bounded on the north by the district of Muttra, on the east by the districts of Mainpuri and Etawah, on the south by the Dholpur and Gwalior territories, and on the west by the Bharatpur state—lies between north latitude $26^{\circ} 43' 45''$ and $27^{\circ} 24' 15''$, and east longitude $77^{\circ} 28' 0''$ and $78^{\circ} 53' 0''$, and contains an area of 1,907 square miles, and a population of 1,096,367, or 575 to the square mile.

2. Sub-divisions.—The district is divided into ten tahsils or sub-collectories and ten parganahs, as follows, proceeding from east to west :—

	Tahsil.				Parganah.				Revenue, 1876.
									£
1.	Pináhat	Pináhat	17,557
2.	Fatehábád	Fatehábád	18,150
3.	Firozábád	Firozábád	20,378
4.	Itimádpur	Itimádpur	18,306
5.	Agra	Agra	18,468
6.	Irádatnagar	Irádatnagar	18,656
7.	Khairágárh	Khairágárh	16,341
8.	Fatehpur Sikri	Fatehpur Sikri	18,169
9.	Farráh	Farráh	17,027
10.	Jalesar	Jalesar	30,416
Total									193,468

3. Physical geography and boundaries.—This district is in the shape of an oblong, with three projecting spurs at the north-east, south-east, and south-west corners; it is divided into two very unequal portions by the river Jumna, that to the north being only about a third of the part to the south of the river; and the south-west spur is cut off by the river Utanghan from the rest of the district: these portions are called respectively the Doáb or trans-Jumna, the cis-Jumna, and trans-Utanghan. The Doáb contains the Jalesar, Khandauli, and Firozábád parganahs; the cis-Jumna contains the Farráh, Fatehpur Sikri, Agra, Irádatnagar, Fatehábád, and Pináhat parganahs; and the trans-Utanghan the greater portion of the Khairágárh parganah.

(1.) The Doáb or trans-Jumna portion formerly consisted only of the parganahs of Khandauli and Firozábád, but to these were added in 1874 the parganah of Jalesar, which was then taken away from the Muttra district.

The first two parganahs being situated on the Jumna, and traversed by the Jhirna (or Karwan) Naddi, are intersected by broad and extensive ravines; they have but little khádir or low-lying land, and what there is, is always below the ravines; then comes a belt of sandy land and a level surface of up-land beyond.¹ The Jumna flows along the south with numerous twists and turns, sometimes running north, and sometimes south, but in a general course from west to east; its banks are mostly steep, and, except in a few places, rarely change their position: in the east part of Khandauli they sometimes form into lofty headlands which have kept their position for generations: all along the banks deep and extensive ravines formed by the drainage of the country above branch out into the interior and extend for miles inwards. Khandauli is even more raviny than Firozábád, as the Jhirna adds its contributions of nallahs throughout the west part of the parganah. The Sirsa and Sengar Naddis traverse the north of Firozábád, but do not throw out such extensive ravines. The newly added parganah of Jalesar is again more level than Firozábád, as it is away from the Jumna, and is only intersected by the Isan Naddi, which is afterwards called the Sirsa. In all three parganahs, when the plain country above the ravines is reached, it is level and unbroken, and the soil, with rare exceptions, is a rich and productive loam, with only occasionally a narrow ridge of sandy hillock. There are a few úsar plains scattered here and there, and in places strips and patches of dhák jangal, remnants of much more extensive forests.

(2.) Almost the same description applies to the cis-Jumna tract, or portion between the Jumna on the north and the Chambal and Utanghan on the south, as this is intersected in its west portion by the Khári Naddi, and in its eastern by the Utanghan river, so that no part of the country is very far from a stream or river, and is therefore more or less cut up by the ravines which drain into them.

This Doáb between the Jumna and Utanghan varies from 24 miles broad in the west to 8, or even less, in Pináhat, and the character of the country varies with this breadth. In the four western parganahs of Farrah, Fatehpur Sikri, Agra, and Irádatnagar it is tolerably level and free from ravines in its central position, except along the course of the Khári Naddi; but when one gets east of the place where the Khári joins the Utanghan the whole country becomes a mass of ravines, for it is bounded by the Jumna on the north, and by the Utanghan and Chambal on the south and the east, while the Utanghan runs right across it between parganahs Fatehábád and Pináhat. No part

¹ Itimádpur and Firozábád Rent-rate Reports, 1876.

of this tract is more than four miles from a large river, and it is therefore composed entirely of ravines and of the small patches of level ground between them; a small belt of level land runs along the centre between the Jumna and the Chambal, and the only road which traverses this part of the district is carried along this.

(3.) The trans-Utanghan portion is only a part of the Khairágárh parganah: it is very broken and raviny, as the Goela river traverses its whole length, and its north boundary is formed by a range of hills called the Sijra Pahár; these throw out spurs across the tract and break up the face of the country extensively.

4. *Rivers.*—The chief rivers in the district are—(1) the Jumna, (2) the Utanghan, (3) the Chambal, (4) the Goela, (5) the Khári, (6) the Karwán, (7) the Sirsa, (8) the Sengar. Of these the Goela is in the trans-Utanghan portion of the district, and the last three are in the trans-Jumna part.

(1.) The Jumna enters the district at the north-west corner, two miles south of Mahábán, in the Muttra district; for the first 32 miles of its course it divides parganah Farrah from parganah Mahábán of Muttra, passing the town of Farrah at about the 10th mile, and then zigzagging in a series of most tortuous curves till it turns into the district in the 40th mile, and divides parganah Khandauli from the Agra tahsil. It runs 3 miles south of Khandauli, and after a course of another 14 miles reaches Agra itself in the 54th mile. The city, civil station, and cantonments are all to the south and west of the river, but there is a suburb on the east side as well. The Jumna is here crossed by the East Indian Railway bridge, which conveys the railway to the civil station and city, and enables it to form a junction with the Rájpútána railway. It then flows due east for 14 miles, dividing parganah Khandauli from Fatehábád; at that point it turns south for 8 miles, and then resumes a generally easterly but very variable course for 18 miles, till it arrives within 2 miles of Firozábád, and now divides parganah Firozábád from parganah Fatehábád: there it turns south-west for 8 miles till it reaches a point within 2 miles of the town of Fatehábád, and where in the 102nd mile of its course in the district it is within 5 miles of the place it had reached in its 76th mile: the intervening 26 miles of course enclose a long narrow tongue of land, running from near Fatehábád to near Firozábád. From Fatehábád the Jumna runs in a tolerably direct south-east course for 23 miles to near Batesar, and at the 116th mile it is joined by the Utanghan from the west. It has hitherto had no affluent in this district except the unimportant Karwan Naddi, which flows into it four miles east of Agra. From Batesar the Jumna flows in a very

winding course, but in a generally south-east direction for 50 miles, till it leaves the district at a point 10 miles west of Etawah. During this part of its course it divides parganahs Shikohábád of Mainpuri and Bibámiyu of Etawah from parganah Pináhat. It has altogether a course of about 175 miles in this district, and from its navigability and proximity to Agra and other towns it formed till quite lately one of the chief highways of the district. The East Indian Railway and the metalled roads have now caused it to be almost deserted for light and high-priced traffic, but heavy goods, particularly stone, are still frequently despatched to the eastern districts by barges which float down on its stream at a fairly rapid rate. It generally runs between high steep banks, and has a clear rapid current, which in the rains is swollen to a river of great force and volume. It is from 500 feet to a quarter of a mile broad, and about 10 feet deep; it is only fordable in the hot weather, and in a few places.

(2.) The Utanghan flows through the Bharatpur state from the west, and enters the district near Dabar, 8 miles south-west of Fatehpur Sikri; for the first 14 miles it forms roughly, but not exactly, the boundary between Bharatpur and parganah Fatehpur Sikri; it then crosses parganah Sarhendi with a horse-shoe bend to the west, and forms the boundary (approximately) between the Dhelpur state and parganahs Sarhendi, Irádatnagar, and Fatehbád for 46 miles, running nearly due east, and finally entering the district again at Nabohra, 6 miles south of Fatehbád. Thence for 22 miles it forms the boundary between parganahs Fatehbád and Pináhat, and falls into the Jumna 10 miles east of Fatehbád; it has altogether a course of about 93 miles in this district.

(3.) The Chambal strikes the boundary of the district at Samonah, in the extreme south-east of parganah Pináhat, and forms throughout its course the south boundary of that parganah, dividing it from the Gwalior state for 52 miles; it leaves the district on the Etawah boundary 15 miles west of Etawah; its course is almost due east throughout its length. The Chambal, which joins the Jumna in the Etawah district 48 miles further east, is a large and turbulent river, conveying often a greater volume of water than the Jumna, and increasing the size of the latter greatly after their conjunction. The current runs at from 2 to 6 miles an hour; the channel is usually narrow and rocky, and the banks steep.

(4.) The Goela is a small stream which rises in the south-west of parganah Sarhendi, near Jagnor Kasbah, and flows 10 miles due north to near Sarhendi, where it turns west, and after running 6 miles more it falls into the Utanghan 4 miles west of Sarhendi.

(5.) The Khári Naddi rises on the borders of the Bharatpur state, 6 miles west of Fatehpur Sikri, and flows north-east, past that town, for 9 miles, till it is joined by a small stream from the north-west; it then turns east and runs 34 miles in a south-east direction through the parganahs of Fatehpur Sikri and Irádatnagar, till it falls into the Utanghan 5 miles east of the town of Irádatnagar. In the rains the current is strong and deep (4 miles an hour), but the stream is a mere thread in the hot weather.

(6.) The Karwan rises far north in the Aligarh district and flows from parganah Háthras of that district into parganah Khandauli of Agra at the northernmost point of the latter, 4 miles south of Saidábád ; it flows due south for 14 miles through Khandauli till it falls into the Jumna 4 miles east of Agra.

(7) The Sirsa and (8) the Sengar. The Isan Naddi, which rises in Aligarh, enters this district in parganah Jalesar, 5 miles north-west of the town of Jalesar ; it runs for 18 miles south-east through the parganah till it leaves it at Katki, and enters parganah Firozábád ; it is now called the Sirsa, and flows past Narkhai and Jakhai into the Mainpuri district. The Sengar rises at Rataoli in Firozábád, and flows past Kotlah into Mainpuri.

5. Lakes.—The district is so well drained by the two great rivers the Jumna and the Utanghan that there are hardly any lakes or jhils of any size in it.

There are none of any importance in the trans-Jumna parganahs, and none east of Fatehbád in the Doáb parganahs ; but there are several large jhils between Kandhol and the Jumna in the north of the Fatehbád parganah.

There are also two in the north-east of the Sarhendi parganah,—one, the Son jhil, two miles west of Aila : this is about 2 miles long from east to west and a mile broad ; the other, the Bidhauli jhil, is $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles further west, and is much smaller.

There is also a third, the Barwar jhil, 2 miles north of the latter, and the marshy tract extends into the Fatehpur parganah. Another marshy tract stretches from Goberdhan in Muttra into the north of the Farrah parganah, thence south-east by Achnera, Daoli, and Jarwa through the Irádatnagar and Fatehbád parganahs till it drains into the Utanghan near Mahabra.

There is a large lake covering 1,000 bighas of land between the Fatehpur Sikri and Bandroli hills: it is 6 miles west of Fatehpur, and is called the Páli lake.

There is also a lake in Itimádpur, called the Motiya jhil ; it is at the 6th mile of the Tundla and Etah road.

6. *Forests and waste lands.*—The country on both sides of the Jumna and Utanghan where they traverse the district, and that south of the Jumna and north of the Utanghan and Chambal where they bound the district, is exceedingly broken and raviny. The streams of water flowing from the high lands into these rivers all cut for themselves separate paths down to the beds, and these get enlarged and branch out as years go on, till the whole country within 3 or 4 miles of a stream is one mass of ravines, sometimes perfectly bare, and sometimes covered with scrub jangal or babúl trees.

The country in the neighbourhood of the smaller streams—the Khári, the Karwan, and the Sirsa—is equally cut up by ravines; but not to such a distance from the beds of the rivers, as a much smaller volume of water descends into them. The difference of level between the upper and lower country is 20 to 40 feet on the Jumna and 70 to 100 on the Chambal.¹ The ravines interpose great obstacles to traffic, as they are sometimes absolutely impassable and always very difficult to traverse. There are no forests of any size in the district; there are here and there patches of babúl and dhák jangal, but of no extent. These occur about Tanoura and Aruta in Fatehábud, along the Chambal in Pínáhat, along the Jumna in Firozábád near Pilua and Karkauli, and in the north by Kotla fort; at Tikattar in Jalesar, and at Ibrahimpur in Itimádpur. There is a wide uncultivated tract of pasture ground extending over about 700 acres in the lands of Noni and Bubhan in parganah Khairágárh; it is known as the “cháhan.”

7. *Geology.*—The trans-Jumna and all the northern and eastern parts of the Doáb divisions are, like all other districts in the plains, of purely alluvial origin, and present no noticeable features; but the extreme west and south-west of the district is mountainous, and contains two distinct ranges of sandstone hills, one running north-east and south-west, just beyond Fatehpur Sikri, and the other, the Bandroli range, running from the Utanghan, north of Sarhendi, south-westwards into the Bháratpur state: a spur of these also stretches out eastwards across the parganah to Jagner. These hills are the extreme northern point of the great basin of the upper Vindhyan rocks; they are formed of Baner (Bandair) sandstone, the top group of that formation. This ridge is the prolongation of the north-west edge of the basin, being almost continuous from here to Chittorgarh in Rájpútána.

8. *Climate.*—The average total rainfall was 22·6 inches for the 11 years from 1860 to 1871; during this period the maximum was 36·5 inches in 1867, and the minimum was 11·9 inches in 1860.

¹ Benson, Agra Memoir.

The annual mean temperature was 79° in 1870, and 73° in 1871; the lowest monthly mean was 59° in January, and the highest 96° in June.

The Agra district, from its proximity to the sandy deserts to the west, is very dry, and has greater extremes of temperature than districts further east. It is very cold in the winter and exceedingly hot in the summer, though the climate is on the whole considered healthy.

The hot west wind blows during March, April, May, and June with great force, and the rains often do not begin till the first week in July : they generally end in the middle of September, and the weather grows cold again by the middle of October.

9. *Minerals and trees.*—There are no mines in the district, but there are stone quarries on the extreme western border beyond Fatehpur Sikri.

The stone is roughly hewn in the quarries, and then transported to Agra, where it is dressed, and often carved, before being exported. It is all sandstone of the Bandair series, and affords admirable material for building purposes, being hard and durable.

There are some úsar plains covered with the saline efflorescence from which saltpetre is manufactured, and the country round Agra itself is all impregnated with salt, which affects the well water and makes it brackish, as it so often is near the river Jumna.

The following fruit trees are found in the district : mángo, lime, wild-plum, pomegranate, mulberry, custard-apple, peach, tamarind, guava, orange, fálsa, jáman, mahua, lahsora, karaunda, amola, kachnár, khirni, and sahnjna.

Besides these there are the ordinary timber and forest trees of Upper India, such as the shisham, ním, mahua, pipal, bargad, gular, amaltás, bakain, sirsa, bair, palm, babúl, and dhák ; and of other vegetable products there is thatching grass cut in large quantities along the banks of the Utanghan, the Chambal, and the Jumna, and wood (for fires, &c.) chiefly brought from the "Gauna" in parganah Farrah.

10. *Animals, birds, and fish. (A.) Animals.*—The following animals are found in the district : (1) the monkey, (2) the flying-fox or fox-bat (bagal), (3) the muskrat (chuchunda), (4) the north Indian hedgehog, (5) the badger (biju), (6) the otter (ud-biláo), (7) the leopard, (8) the wild cat, (9) the striped hyæna (lakhar baghar), (10) the Bengal mangús (neula), (11) the wolf (bheriya), (12) the jackal (gidar), (13) the Indian fox, (14) the Gangetic porpoise, (15) the striped squirrel (galeri), (16) the Indian jerboa (jangli chúha), (17) the bandicoot rat (ghús), (18) the Indian porcupine (sei), (19) the Indian hare (khargosh), (20) the Indian

wild-boar (*súr*), (21) the hog-deer (*párá*), (22) the blue-bull (*nilgæ* or *ban-roz*), (23) the Indian antelope (*hiran*), (24) the Indian gazelle (*chikára*), (25) the wild bull (*bangai*), (26) the Indian scaly ant-eater (*bajurkit*).

(B.) *Birds*.—Of birds the following are found : (1) the screech-owl, (2) the grey hornbill (*chonch*), (3) the paradise flycatcher (*Hussemi bulbul*), (4) the Bengal green-pigeon (*harial*), (5) the blue rock-pigeon (*kabutar*), (6) the little brown dove, (7) the ring-dove, (8) the red turtle-dove, (9) the large sand-grouse (*barra bat-titar*), (10) the common sand-grouse or rock-pigeon (*bat-titar*), (11) the black partridge, (12) the grey partridge, (13) the grey quail, (14) the bush quail (*láwa*), (15) the bustard (*obára*), (16) the sárus crane, (17) the ashy crane (*kulang*), (18) demoiselle crane (*karkarra*), (19) the snipe, (20) the adjutant (*garír*), (21) the black curlew (*karákal*), (22) the flamingo, (23) the barred-headed goose, (24) the grey goose, (25) the bean goose, (26) the brahminy duck or ruddy sheldrake, (27) the shoveller, (28) the spot-bill, (29) the teal, (30) the blue-winged teal, (31) the red-crested pochard.

(C.) *Fish*.—The following descriptions of fish are caught in the rivers of the Agra district and used for food:¹ (1) *rahu*, a large, rather coarse fish, (2) *bam*, (3) *lanchi* or *lanch*, (4) *souli*, (5) *iláichi*, (6) *moh*, (7) *phankul*, (8) *chenga*, (9) *gentar*, (10) *tengar*, (11) *bhur*, (12) *geglä*, (13) *bahda*, (14) *ghagra*, (15) *pattar-chatta* or *bandigar*, (16) *khapta*, (17) *singhi*, a tank fish found in the west of the district. Fish are caught in nets, in funnel-shaped baskets, and with hook and line. When catching with the baskets the men go into the stream and watch for the surface ripple, indicating that a fish is swimming up-stream ; they then lower the basket into the water and splash with their feet, thus driving the fish into the basket. The *geglä* (10) is often caught with the hands when left in the holes of the kankar rocks along the Jumna in the hot weather : they are generally about 10 inches long and a pound in weight. The nets are often attached to floating gourds and kept stationary, but they are sometimes used as drag-nets. All castes, except Brahmans, Baniahs, and Bha-gats, eat fish.

11. *Population*.—The total population of the district in the three last censuses was—

1858	1,001,961
1865	1,028,544
1872	1,096,867

showing an actual increase of 94,406, and an increase of 9·5 per cent. during the twenty years from 1853 to 1872.

The proportions of males and females at the two censuses of 1853 and 1865 were—

Year.	Males.	Females.	Total.
1853	548,421	453,540	1,001,961
1865	557,239	471,305	1,028,544
Actual increase ...	8,818	17,765	26,583
Increase per cent. ...	1·60	3·91	2·65

Census of 1865.—In 1865 Agra had 1,143 manzahis or villages, was 1873·5 square miles (statute) and 1,199,037 acres in extent, of which 794,460 were cultivated and 82,760 culturable (all these being assessed for revenue), while 74,314 were exempted and 247,503 barren (these being unassessed).

From 1853 to 1865 there was an increase of cultivated area of 6·27 per cent. and an increase of population of 2·65 per cent. The Hindús increased 3·39 per cent., and the Musalmáns decreased 3·61 per cent.

The land revenue was Rs. 16,25,001, which falls on the total area at the rate of Re. 1-5-8 per acre, on the assessed area at Re. 1-13-8, and on the area actually cultivated at Rs. 2-0-9.

The population being 1,028,544, the land revenue was at the rate of Re. 1-9-3 per head, and there were 549 persons to the square mile. There were 218,332 houses in the district, which gives 4·71 persons to each house, and in the city of Agra there were 142,661 persons and 32,967 houses, or 4·32 per house.

Of the total of 1,143 villages, the following had less than the populations mentioned in the two censuses of 1865 and 1872 :—

Population.	Number of villages,		
	1865.	1872.	Difference.
Less than 200	189	180	-9
200 to 500	398	419	+21
500 to 1,000	309	348	+39
1,000 to 2,000	167	196	+29
2,000 to 5,000	70	83	+13
5,000 to 10,000	8	3	-5
10,000 to 50,000	1	1	...
Above 50,000	1	1	...
Total ...	1,143	1,231	+88

There were 145,443 Brahmans, of whom 53,189 were Sunadhs ; 187,065 Kshatryas, of whom 66,538 were Játs ; 65,590 Vaisyas ; 392,385 Sudras, of whom 159,984 were Chamárs ; and 84,042 Musalmáns, of whom 13,145 were Patháns.

As regards professions, there were the following numbering above 5,000:—

Labourers	124,859
Agriculturists	564,740
Servants	59,747
Zemindars	5,443
Grain sellers	5,755
Potters	8,394
Cloth weavers	28,620
Water-carriers	12,225
Washermen	8,037
Tailors	5,030
Carpenters	9,608
Victuallers	5,952

There were ten towns with a population above 5,000, viz.—

Towns.	Populations, 1865.				
Pináhat Reha...	5,349
Khandauli Semrah	5,365
Fatehpur Jengara	5,402
Khairágárh	5,416
Pináhat	6,124
Kotla	7,120
Agwar	7,456
Fatehpur Sikri	8,600
Firozábád	13,163
Agra	142,661

Census of 1872.—In 1872 Agra was 1,907 square miles in extent : it had 1,231 villages, 231,270 houses, and a population of 1,096,367.

There were 575 persons and six villages to the square mile, with an average of 891 persons per village and 4·7 persons per house. The number of pakka (brick) houses was 36,384, and of the kacha (mud) 194,886. There were 589,562 males and 504,622 females. Of the 985,483 Hindús, 533,469 were males and 452,014 were females ; of the 107,135 Musalmáns, 55,375 were males and 51,760 females ; and of the 1,566 Christians, &c., 718 were males and 848 females. The percentages on the total population were Hindús 90·1, Musalmáns 9·8 ; males 53·9, and females 46·1.

As regards age, the percentage of the total population above the age of 60 was 2·8 ; and as regards education, 27,176 males were able to read and write out of a total male population of 589,562, or 4·7 per cent.

With regard to land and land revenue the total agricultural population was 535,249 : the total area of assessed land was 1,787 square miles, of which 382 was uncultivable, 100 cultivable, and 1,304 cultivated : of the total area of the district (1,907) 436 was uncultivable, 105 cultivable, and 1,365 cultivated.

The amount of land revenue was Rs. 16,28,735, and the rates and cesses on land amounted to Rs. 1,87,724, while the incidence of the land revenue per culturable acre was Re. 1-12-11. The agricultural population formed 48·9 per cent. of the total population.

As regards caste, the following were the numbers of the seven great castes :—

Hindús	Brahmans	154,520
	Rajputs	111,066
	Banias	63,732
	Ahirs	31,206
	Chamárs	176,933
	Kayaths	10,946
	Kurmis	903

and the following of the four tribes of Musalmáns—

Musalmáns	Shekhs	73,169
	Saiads	6,233
	Mughals	2,127
	Patháns	22,851

As regards occupation, the following were the numbers of the six great classes :—

Professional	4,743
Domestic	46,009
Commercial	17,609
Agricultural	188,088
Industrial	65,566
Indefinite	54,673
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Total	376,688	<hr/>

12. *Town and village population.*—The style, cost, and appearance of dwelling houses vary much according to the circumstances of the inhabitants and the requirements and capabilities of the situation. In the city of Agra houses are mostly of masonry: the better classes have them of three or four stories high, and a small courtyard is almost always enclosed in the centre: to this the entrance gateway leads, and round it the rooms are arranged. The upper floors often have balconies running round them, and the lower floors consist chiefly of pillared verandahs.

Hewn stone, often carved, is employed for door-posts, balconies, &c., and the walls are made of brick set in mortar. On the outskirts of the city flat-roofed or thatched mud habitations are common.

The rural population live almost entirely in mud huts, but in the towns of Firozábád, Fatehbád, and Bah there are many masonry buildings: these are built of brick set in mud or lime; but in the south-west and west of the district near the quarries stone houses are quite common, and even the poorer classes live in houses built of stones roughly piled together: the stone is the sand-stone of the hills west of Fatehpur and Sikri, and of the Bandroli hills. In the east, in the town of Pináhat, some houses are built of blocks of kankar (limestone) from the Chambal ravines. A house is usually the group of dwellings collected within one common wall and having one common gateway; a house with accommodation for one family only is the exception.

West of the Jumna the aspect of a village is that of a lofty mud-walled enclosure with a few openings giving access to the interior: the houses themselves show only a blank wall outside with one doorway, which generally is so contrived with a turn as not to give any view into the interior of the house; and the house if belonging to a wealthy man is a sort of little castle. Business is transacted and acquaintances received on the "chaupúl" or platform (covered with a verandah) outside the door. The inner court is surrounded with separate rooms inhabited by each of the families, and by sheds where cattle are kept, fodder stored, and food prepared. If a ditch is dug all round the house, the walls made higher and stronger, and the courtyard enlarged, the house is called a garhi or fort, and these were dotted all over the face of the country in the Hindú and Muhammadan times. The rooms vary from 9' x 6' to 16' x 9'; there are generally 3 or 4 of them in a house, and 10 or 12 persons living in them.

There are 231,270 houses in the district, with an average of 4.7 persons per house: of these 36,384 are of masonry and 194,886 are of mud: there are 1,231 villages in all, of which 180 have less than 200 inhabitants, 419 have 200 to 500, 348 have 500 to 1,000, 196 have 1,000 to 2,000, 57 have 2,000 to 3,000, 26 have 3,000 to 5,000, 3 have 5,000 to 10,000, 1 has over 10,000, (Firozábád), and 1 has over 20,000 (Agra).

13. *Value of house and furniture.*—The cost of building a house of the best class may be considered to be from £200 upwards, of the 2nd class from £15 to £150, and of the third class from £1 to £10.

A trader's house of the better class contains generally about £50 worth of furniture and utensils of all kinds. Bedsteads, mattresses, quilts, carpets, and

boxes would represent about £30 worth of this, and cooking vessels the remainder.

A well-to-do cultivator owns a few strong boxes and bedsteads and quilts worth about £10, besides cooking vessels worth £5 or £6.

An artizan in middling circumstances possesses one or two mattresses, bedsteads, and quilts, and some drinking and cooking vessels, worth altogether about £3.

A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars, one or two quilts, and perhaps a mattress, worth in all 10 shillings to a pound. The stock required to till 8 or 10 acres is one pair of bullocks worth Rs. 50, one plough Rs. 2, two yokes Re. 1, 1 harrow Re. 1-8-0, 1 well bucket and handle Rs. 5, 1 rope and pulley Rs. 3-8-0, sundries Rs. 2-8-0,—total Rs. 65.

14. *Trades-unions*.—Though not organized after the European model, the caste pancháyats often perform many of the functions of a trades-union. Pancháyats prevail chiefly among the lower castes, and are of two kinds,—(1) those appointed by the court when the matter in dispute has been referred to a court of law, the decision of the pancháyat then becomes the decision of the court; (2) those appointed by the parties themselves or by their caste brethren to decide a dispute between members of the caste or to lay down rules of guidance to prevent disputes. All such matters as working for low rates of wages, under-selling, rates of commission, and agency fees would be referred to a caste pancháyat.

15. *Village communities*.—The villages in this district, as in nearly all in the North-West, may be classified into three kinds, according to the modes in which the land is held and the Government revenue paid.

Zamindári.—Where the whole of the land belongs to several owners in joint occupation, one (or more) of the owners is usually selected by the rest to manage the estate, to collect the Government revenue and pay it in to Government. In these villages there are no pattis or separate shares of land marked off from the rest, but each proprietor owns a defined proportion of the total produce of the estate.

Imperfect pattidari.—Where the village is partly held by several owners in joint occupation, and partly by several owners in severalty or separate occupation. Here the tenure is partly of the first class and partly of the third class, and each portion is managed as if it were a separate estate belonging to that class.

Pattidari.—Where the land has been completely divided among the sharers, and is held by several owners in severalty, but under one tenure as

regards the Government. Here the lands and homesteads are entirely divided off to each owner, but the whole estate remains liable for the Government revenue or any part of it.

There is also a fourth kind of mahál or estate called bhaiachára, where, though it belongs to the second or third class, the rights and interests of each co-sharer are not determined by his ancestral share, but by custom or possession. In all these classes of estates the settlement of the revenue to be paid to Government is a joint settlement, *i.e.*, all the co-sharers are responsible for the fulfilment of the contract, and all the co-sharers, jointly and severally, and the entire mahál are responsible for the whole of the revenue.

The bhaiachára tenure is very common in parganahs Itimádpur, Pináhat, and Khairágarh. In the former settlement 42 per cent. of all the estates were zamindári and 58 per cent. bhaiachara; the present settlement is not yet concluded, and it is therefore impossible to say what changes have occurred since 1840. There are a few talukdári tenures, *i.e.*, where one owner holds a large number of villages and is a superior landlord, as in Jharbi, parganah Itimádpur (18 villages), and in Sukhi Misr's talukah, parganah Fatehábád (20 villages). The Rájá of Bhadáwar has a talukah of 28 villages in parganah Pináhat, but in 19 of these he can only demand the Government revenue, while in the remaining 8 his requisitions on the inferior landlords are not limited by any rule. There are 24 villages held by maáfidars in the district, *i.e.*, held free of Government revenue.

16. *Condition of the people.*—Among the Hindús of the district, if the classification adopted in the Bombay Gazetteer be accepted, the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the 1st class, or having incomes over £100 a year, £96 to £180; (2) for those in the 2nd class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 a year, about £24 to £60; and (3) for those in the 3rd class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns it would be rather more, as their habits are somewhat more expensive.

Most of the cultivators who have no other occupation are very badly off and heavily in debt. They are least badly off in the least advanced parts like Pináhat, where the landlords have not yet learnt to wring the last penny from them. Those who own a little land are of course somewhat better off; but the minute sub-division of property, and the litigation and quarrels which it often involves, prevent them from deriving as much advantage from it as they might otherwise do. The native officials say that from 60 to 90 per cent. of the cultivators are badly off. Those most deeply indebted are entirely in the hands of

their creditors, borrowing the seed from him, living on the crops as they ripen, and handing them over to him when they are gathered : in case of a failure they are at his mercy, but he will generally keep them alive, not from charity, but that he may yet wring a little more out of them.

Character of the soil.—In the trans-Jumna or Doáb portion the soil is, with few exceptions, a rich and productive loam: here and there in isolated villages a narrow ridge of sandy hillock is found, and in a few the soil is lighter than the average. The ravines and their adjacent tracts greatly affect the productiveness of this portion of the district, for the infertility extends far beyond the area actually occupied by the ravines: wherever any perceptible slope begins the surface soil is washed away, leaving scarcely enough mould for seed to germinate in ; this area is also fringed with a belt of sandy soil, where the produce is poor and uncertain: these tracts are in fact to a large extent bare waste, seldom being planted even with babúl trees. The khádir under the ravines is generally fertile, often bearing wheat and sugarcane, and in parts where it is almost pure river sand, melons.

There are the following tenants-at-will and occupancy tenants in each parganah :—

Parganah.	Occupancy tenants.	Tenants-at-will.
Farrah ...	6,633	8,431
Agra ...	8,596	3,211
Itimádpur ...	4,667	3,272
Firozábád ...	7,203	2,528
Piráhat ...	13,619	9,058
Fatehbád ...	9,411	5,584
Irádatnagar ...	5,618	4,071
Khair garh... ...	4,696	4,261
Katéhpur Sikri	6,293	8,798
Total ...	66,796	49,214

The following are the chief soils :—

- (1.) Chicknot or clayey, chiefly alumina with one-third silex.
- (2.) Dumat or manured soil: most silex, less alumina.
- (3.) Mattiyár or stiff earthy, $\frac{6}{10}$ silex, $\frac{4}{10}$ alumina and vegetable matter.
- (4.) Piriya or yellow soil, $\frac{3}{5}$ silex, $\frac{2}{5}$ alumina.
- (5.) Bhúr or sandy, $\frac{7}{10}$ silex, $\frac{3}{10}$ alumina.
- (6.) Retar or pure sand, $\frac{8}{10}$ silex, $\frac{2}{10}$ alumina.

The percentage of each soil on the total cultivated area is as follows:—

					Percentage.
1. Chiknot	5·25
2. Dumat	17·25
3. Mattiyár	19·75
4. Piriya	29·0
5. Bhár	19·75
6. Retar	9·
				Total	... 100·0

Manure is used for most crops, but bajra, jowár, &c., are often not manured. Manure is sold at from 60 to 100 maunds for the rupee, but is generally to be obtained for the carriage.

20. *Course of tillage.*—There are two harvests, the kharif or autumn one, and the rabbi or spring one. The kharif crops are sown in June, directly the first rain falls, and are harvested in October and November, and some of the rice in September, or even as early as the end of August; but cotton is not ripe for picking till February. Besides cotton and rice they include bajra, jowár, mot, &c. The rabbi crops are sown in October and November, and reaped in March and April: they consist of corn, barley, oats, vetch and peas, and dál or arhar. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both crops; land is allowed to lie fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it, and, as a rule, spring and autumn crops are not taken off the same land, but sometimes a crop of rice is taken in the autumn, and another crop of some kind in the spring. Autumn crops like mot, bajra, &c., are sown year after year on the same land, and there is no rotation of crops in the unirrigated sandy soils, but on most lands autumn crops are grown in one year, and spring crops in the next, wheat and barley alternating with cotton and bajra, and gram with jowár. These are the principal crops of the district, but pulses also occupy a large area and sugarcane, vegetables, and tobacco are of course also grown. From the returns of outturn for the last twenty years it would appear that there is an increase in the cultivation of superior cereals and of cotton, but that additional land has been taken into cultivation, and no decrease in food-grains has occurred.

21. *Years of scarcity.*—The country between the Fatehpur Sikri and Bandroli ranges of hills is liable to flooding from rain torrents having been obstructed for purposes of irrigation: from this cause the area of cultivation and the fertility of the soil have been seriously affected by swamping and subsequent sand deposits. The district is much subject to droughts, as it depends so

much on natural rainfall for its water-supply. It was one of the great centres of famine in 1783-84, and in 1813-14 it suffered severely, 1812 having been a bad season, and 1813 one of very scanty rainfall. This famine was worst in the Sarhendi parganah in the extreme south-west of the district, where every tank and stream was dried up : wheat rose from 33 seers the rupee in 1812 to 20 seers in 1813, and then fell to 30 in 1814, and 41 in 1815, so that the district apparently recovered its prosperity very rapidly.

In 1819, though the district was exporting grain, wheat was up to 17 seers again, and gram to 20 seers, and £29,000 of the revenue remained uncollected. The district again suffered from drought in 1825-26, and in 1837-38 the great famine was very severely felt. In February, 1838, 3,800 paupers were being relieved in Agra, and a strand road was constructed as a relief work ; 300,000 starving paupers immigrated into the Agra district in search of relief, and an epidemic broke out among them which swept away 200 to 300 a day for months. By the end of March the paupers in Agra alone had risen to 77,000 ; in June, though some rain had fallen, there were 113,000, and £220,000 of the revenue had to be remitted. A succession of bad years followed, and the water line in the wells distinctly sank deeper : more wells were dug and irrigation projects were encouraged, but the district only slowly recovered from the terrible "*chauránabe*" (94) famine.

The next great famine was that of 1860-61, though Agra was not so much affected as the districts further north. In April, 1861, 18,000 persons were employed on relief works and 2,000 on irrigation works ; and up to July the daily average was 66,000.

Wheat rose to 10 seers the rupee in September, 1860, but by July, 1861, it had fallen to 15 again : and the effects of this famine were not so severe or so lasting as that of 1837.

The last great famine was in 1868-69 : the failure of rain in the autumn of 1868 destroyed the autumn crops, and confined the spring sowings to irrigated lands. The spring harvest was saved by rain in January and February, 1869, but scarcity began to be felt from September, 1868. The famine was never really very bad in the district itself, as the western half had had rain, but crowds of fugitives trooped into it from the native states of Rájputána, bringing want and disease with them. The Agra Canal helped to find work for all the able-bodied, but the sickly and women of respectability were supported by Government. Here, as generally happens, distress really begins when the scarcity of the cheap autumn grains forces the poorer people to have recourse to the better grains of the spring crops, and then all grains rise to one uniform

high price of 12 to 13 seers for the rupee, which is quite beyond the means of the labouring classes.

22. *Communications and trade.*—(A.) *Railways.*—There are two railways in the district,—one, the East Indian, running right through it from the Mainpuri border between Shikhabad and Firozábád to the Aligarh border between Tundla and Barhan, and sending out a branch from Tundla to Agra of 13 miles ; and secondly, the Rájputána State Railway from Agra to Jaipur.

A third, the Scindia State Railway, is under construction from Agra to Gwalior.

(1.) The main East Indian line is single throughout : the gauge is 5 feet 6 inches, and there are no tunnels or viaducts on the line ; it enters the district at the 811th mile from Calcutta. Firozábád station is at the 816th, Tundla at the 827th, and Barhan at the 836th. Agra fort is 843 miles by rail from Calcutta. Agra station is on the east or the left bank of the Jumna, but is now only used for goods traffic, the passenger traffic being booked from the fort station across the Jumna bridge, which belongs to the Rájputána Railway.

(2.) The Rájputána State Railway runs from Agra *via* Bháratpur to Jaipur : it is narrow (metre) gauge, and runs for 20 miles in this district ; the East Indian Railway is connected with it at the fort station, and also joins on to the Scindia Railway. It starts from the Agra fort station and runs 8 miles to Bichpuri, and then 8 miles further to Achnera, at both of which places there are stations. The railway bridge over the Jumna consists of 16 spans of 142 feet each, and 4 short spans on the west bank. It carries both broad and narrow gauge lines and a roadway of 24 feet.

(3.) The Scindia State Railway, now under construction, is to leave the Rajputána line between the fort and cantonment stations, and running through parganahs Fatehbád and Pínshat, and crossing the Utanghan and the Chambal to proceed to Gwalior *via* Dholpur.

(B.) *Metalled roads.*—There are eight lines of metalled road in the district, all converging on Agra, *viz.*—

(1.) The Muttra road, running 35 miles north-west to Muttra ; of this 25 miles are in this district. At 5 miles from Agra it passes Sikandra, where are Akbar's tomb and the Christian orphanage ; and at Rankatta, 10 miles from Agra, it strikes the Jumna ; thence it runs parallel to that river to Farrah (19 miles), and thence to the borders of the district, 2 miles south of Mahában.

(2.) The Aligarh road, running 40 miles due north to Aligarh ; of this 10 miles are in this district. This road leaves Agra near the railway bridge,

and following the curve of the river Jumna round to Poia 6 miles, then strikes north through Khandauli to the borders of the district at Khandwa.

(3.) The Cawnpore road, running 31 miles in this district, generally due westward, but making a large curve to the north to avoid the ravines of the Jumna. This road leaves Agra on the north side of the river and runs 12 miles north-west to Itimádpur, at first close to the Jumna, but gradually leaving it to the south; thence it runs 14 miles south-west to Firozábád, being parallel to the East Indian Railway from Tundla eastwards; from Firozábád it runs 5 miles due west to Bijaipur, on the borders of the Mainpuri district.

(4.) The Etáwah road *viā* Kachaura. The last mentioned road leads to Etáwah *viā* Shikohábád and Jaswantnagar, but this one which runs south of the Jumna is the more direct. It leaves Agra near the Táj Mahál and runs south-west to Kandhol (10 miles), soon after which it approaches very near to the Jumna, till it reaches Fatehábád in the 15th mile; thence it turns more to the south, and crossing the river Utanghan in the 25th mile, it traverses the whole length of parganah Pináhat, passing Bah in the 40th mile, and reaching the Jumna at Kachaura in the 55th mile; here the direct road to Etáwah leaves the district, crossing the Jumna into parganah Bibámiyu of Etáwah, but a branch leaves it 3 miles west of Kachaura, which runs through the rest of parganah Pináhat and through part of parganah Janíbraust of Etáwah, reaching Etáwah on the south side of the Jumna. This road is only metalled as far as Fatehábád; it is the old Mughal road which crosses the Grand Trunk Road at Fatehpur Haswa and goes on to Allahabad.

(5.) The Bombay or Gwalior road *viā* Dholpur: this leaves Agra in the cantonments and runs 19 miles due south to the borders of the Dholpur state. It does not pass any large towns, but runs due south through parganahs Agra and Irádatnagar, crossing the Khári Naddi in the 11th mile. Previous to the construction of railways this was the great highway between the North-Western Provinces, Rájpútána, and Bombay; it crosses the river Utanghan by a bridge at Jajauh, on the south border of the district, and in the 19th mile.

(6.) The Karaoli road *viā* Sarhendi. This road runs from Agra 8 miles south-south-west to Jarwa Bara, thence 18 miles south-west to Sarhendi, crossing the Utanghan river in the 15th mile, and from there, 10 miles south, passing Jagnor Kasbah, and leaving the district at Jalálpur: it is only metalled for the first five miles out of Agra.

(7.) The Fatehpur Sikri or Nasirábád road runs for 31 miles west-south-west through parganahs Agra and Fatehpur Sikri, passing Karaoli in the 16th mile, and Fatehpur Sikri in the 24th. It leaves the district in the

31st mile near Dábar, and crosses the Utanghan soon afterwards. It is only metalled as far as Fatehpur : a branch of it leads from Fatehpur to Bharatpur.

(8.) The Bharatpur road, metalled throughout, runs 32 miles due west from Agra to Bharatpur ; of this 21 miles are in the district. It runs through parganahs Agra and Farrah, parallel with the Rájputána Railway, and passes Achnera in the 17th mile.

Besides these roads the Agra Canal has one navigable channel, and the river Jumna carries a considerable traffic eastwards in boats laden with heavy goods. The traffic at the three railway stations was as follows in 1871 :—

Stations.	No. of passengers booked.	Weight of goods despatched. Mans.
Agra ...	133,248	14,54,529
Tundla ...	34,816	2,890
Firozábád ...	23,426	70,958
Total ...	191,490	15,28,378

The only manufactures or trades carried on under European supervision are—(1) cotton-pressing, (2) indigo-making. There is one firm of European indigo planters whose headquarters are in the Muttra district, but who have four factories in this district : in 1872 only two of these were working, and they employed 20 persons permanently and 200 in the manufacturing season. At one time there were five European firms working 17 cotton-screws, but the number has greatly diminished since 1862 : one pair of screws will turn out 44 bales of cotton a day, or 16,000 a year. Besides these there are 19 screws belonging to natives.

Agra is also celebrated for its manufacture of shoes and pipe-stems, and for its work in inlaid marble and mosaics ; it is a great entrépot of traffic for refined sugar, tobacco, salt, and cotton, and it exports darris, gold-lace, and stone (wrought). The latter is brought from the quarries in the west of the district, dressed in Agra, and then exported to the east and north.

There are four large cattle markets in the district,—at Sultánpur in the Agra tahsil, at Kandharpur in Pináhat, at Jarra and at Shamshábád in Irádatnagar, besides the well-known one at Batesar.

There are village potters in every village, and weavers in most, and at Fatehpur Sikri darris are made, which are chiefly exported. In that parganah and Khairágárh there is a large industry in quarrying and dressing stone.

23. *Money-lending, wages, and prices.*—The rates of interest at present (1877) charged in the district are as follows:—

- (a.)—In small transactions, when articles are pawned, from 12 to 15 per cent.
- (b.)—In small transactions, when personal security is given, from 18 to 37 per cent.
- (c.)—In large transactions, when jewels, &c., are pledged, from 6 to 12 per cent.
- (d.)—When bankers lend money to bankers on personal security, 6 to 9 per cent.
- (e.)—When land is mortgaged, from 9 to 18 per cent.

The rates of wages are as follows:—

- (a.)—Coolies and unskilled town labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ pence a day.
- (b.)—Agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 pence a day.
- (c.)—Bricklayers and carpenters, 6 pence to 2 shillings a day.

Female labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men.

Boys of from 12 to 16 get two-thirds of the wages of full-grown men; boys younger than that and girls from one-half to one-third.

The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were as follows:—

	Number of seers (2lbs.) for a rupee (2s.)			
	1st April.	1st August.	1st December.	Average.
Wheat	...	26	26	25
Rice	...	6	6	7
Jowár	...	32	27	30
Bajra	...	32	29	30
Dál	...	29	28	27

There is very little hoarding, but money accumulates with the village bankers as profit sometimes, though it is generally re-invested in trade. In small transactions interest is generally as high as 18 to 20 per cent., but when an article is pledged the amount advanced is often equal to the value of the article, less 25 per cent. In estates the property mortgaged is put into the hands of the mortgagee, who takes the profit of the estate as the interest on his loan. With agriculturists, when advances are made on the standing crop, interest often rises to 37, and even to 50 per cent.

All wages and prices have risen since the mutiny, the former chiefly owing to the rise in the price of food. The rise in coolies' wages has chiefly occurred since 1867, and they have been kept up by the demand for labour on the Rájpútána Railway and the Agra Canal. A coolie obtained 2 annas a day in Agra and 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ anna in the country in 1850; he now obtains $2\frac{1}{2}$ annas in Agra and $1\frac{3}{4}$ to 2 in the country. Smiths then got 2 and 3 annas, they now get 3 and 4, and in the city even 6 or 7; bricklayers got 3, and now get 4. Wheat sold for 32 seers the rupee in 1816, 23 in 1840, and 19 in 1872; jowár for 38 in 1816, 28 in 1840, and 19 in 1872; and cotton was Rs. 9-8 a man (80 lbs.) in 1816, Rs. 9-13 in 1840, and Rs. 15-8 in 1872.

24. *History.*—The district of Agra has no history of any importance previous to the time of Akbar, who founded the city in 1566.¹ The name is supposed to be derived from "agar," a saltpan, from the brackishness of the soil. Before Akbar's time it had been a residence of the Lodi kings, and was occupied by Bábar after he had defeated Ibrahim Khan in 1526; but his city was on the left bank of the Jumna, where the foundations are still to be seen. When Bábar had established the Mughal in place of the Lodi dynasty he re-sided at Agra, and fought a great and decisive battle with the Rajputs near Fatehpur Sikri in 1527.

Before his death at Agra in 1530 he was ruler of all the provinces of Hindustan and Cabul to the borders of Bengal: he was succeeded by his son Humaiun, who in 1539 was driven out of Behar by the Afghans and forced to retreat on Agra. In 1540 he was again defeated near Kanauj by Sher Shah, and left Agra for Sindh: here in 1542 was born his son, afterwards the Emperor Akbar. Humaiun ultimately recovered all Hindustan, and died at Dehli in 1556; Sher Shah having ruled during his absence. He was succeeded by Akbar, who during the first four years till 1560 was ruled by his minister Bahram Khan, who was then deposed. In 1568 he took the fort of Chittúr and brought the gates to Agra. In 1570 he founded Fatehpur Sikri, and his son, afterwards the Emperor Jahángir, was born: in 1586 Jahángir was married, and in 1592 his son, afterwards the Emperor Sháhjahán, was born. Meanwhile Akbar had been extending his dominions steadily and had conquered Sindh. In 1595 he sent an expedition into the Deccan, and in 1598 he followed it himself. He returned to Agra in 1601, and then built the Buland Darwaza at Fatehpur Sikri. Jahángir was now in rebellion against him, and also quarrelling with his own son Khushru, and finally Akbar died in 1605. He built during his reign the Agra fort and Fatehpur Sikri. Jahángir succeeded without opposition in

¹ Keene's "Agra."

1607. Jahángir married Nur Jahán, and about the same time rebuilt Akbar's tomb at Sikandra and constructed the Jahángir Mahál of the Agra Palace. In 1616 he sent his son Sháhjahán to re-subdue the Deccan, which had revolted, and Sháhjahán passed some years there in gradually bringing it under subjection. In 1618 Jahángir left Agra and passed the rest of his reign in the Panjáb and Cábúl : he had constructed the mausoleum of Itmad-ud-daula before leaving. He died in 1627, and was succeeded by Shahjahán, who soon after had to leave for the Deccan, where rebellion had again broken out. In 1632 he returned to Agra, and in 1637 moved to Dehli. In 1648 the Táj Mahal was completed, and in 1653 the Moiī Masjid in the fort. In 1658 his fourth son, Aurangzeb, rebelled, defeated the imperial army near Agra, and entered the city in triumph. Sháhjahán was then deposed, though he lived in regal state at Agra for seven years more. Besides the buildings abovementioned, Shálijahán constructed the Jamma Masjid and the Khás Mahal.

Aurangzeb lived for a time at Agra, and in 1659 the Rájá of Jodhpur attacked it in vain. In 1666 Sháhjahán died in Agra ; but before this Aurangzeb had removed to Dehli. Agra then became a second class city, the residence of a governor, and was often attacked by the Játs. Aurangzeb spent the rest of his reign in subduing the Musalmán kingdoms of Bijapur and Golkonda, and died in the south in 1707.

In 1764 Agra was taken by the Játs of Bharatpur under Suraj Mal and Walter Reinhardt (Samru). In 1770 the Marhattas occupied the whole of the Doáb, but they were expelled by the Emperor's troops under Najaf Khan in 1773. The Jats then recovered Agra, but were finally driven out by Najaf Khan in 1774. Agra was then ruled by Muhammad Beg of Hamadan as governor for ten years. During this time Najaf Beg resided there as imperial minister and kept great state. Reinhardt (Samru) died at Agra in 1778, and in 1779 Najaf Khan removed to Dehli, where he died in 1782. The Emperor Shah Alum was old and imbecile, and disputes at once arose among the ministers. Muhammad Beg shot Najaf's nephew, and was then besieged in Agra by the forces of the Emperor and of Madhoji Sindhia in 1784. The fort surrendered to Sindhia, who held Agra till, in 1787, his general was in turn besieged by the imperial troops under Ghulam Kadir and Ismail Beg. A relieving force was sent under General de Boigne, which fought a battle with them near Fatehpur Sikri, and the siege was raised in June, 1788. After this John Hessing, a Dutchman, was governor of the fort till his death in 1802 ; the Marhattas kept possession of it till it was taken by Lord Lake in that year, when it passed into the hands of the English; and it and the district had an uneventful history till 1857.

The news of the massacre at Meerut reached Agra on the 14th May. On the 30th some companies of the 44th and 67th Native Infantry sent to Muttra to bring in the treasure mutinied and carried off the treasure to Dehli. These two regiments were disarmed on the 31st, and rebellion in the district was suppressed by the Gwalior and Bharatpur cavalry; but when the Gwalior contingent mutinied on 15th June, all the detachments followed, and on the 2nd July the rebel force of the Nimach and Nasirabad contingents reached Fatehpur Sikri, and on the 3rd the Government retired into the fort. On the 5th our troops attacked the rebels at Sacheta, but had to retreat on the fort: the rebels, however, passed on to Dehli, but the mob rose and plundered Agra and burnt all the houses. On the 8th partial order was restored, though 22 Christians had been murdered during the 6th and 7th. All the tahsils and thanahs fell into the hands of the rebels, who still held Fatehpur Sikri, and on the 29th July an expedition was made against it and it was taken.

On the 10th another expedition restored order in the Itimádpur and Firozábád parganahs, and the Rájá of Áwa kept order in the north, while the Rájá of Bhadáwar did the same in the east. Dehli having been taken in September, the rebels from there, joined by those from Central India, advanced on Agra on the 6th of October. On the 10th Colonel Greathed's column from Dehli entered Agra, and at once were attacked by the rebels on the parade ground; after a hard fight they were put to flight and all their guns taken. The rebels still occupied Fatehpur Sikri, but a column was sent against them which dispersed them, and on the 29th November the last villages which were in open rebellion were stormed and taken; and on the 4th February, 1858, the last man who still remained in arms was driven out of the district.

25. *Administration.*—Agra was for many years the capital of the North-West, and the seat of the local administration, but after the mutiny the headquarters of Government were moved to Allahabad, and the Board of Revenue, post-office, and other departments soon followed, till, in 1868, the High Court also was transferred, and Agra sank back into what it now is—the headquarters of a revenue division and the command of a brigadier. It is the seat of a sessions and civil judge's court, who has also the district of Muttra under him. The commissioner of the Agra division has under him the districts of Etawah, Mainpuri, Fatehgarh, Etah, Agra, and Muttra, and controls them in the revenue and police departments.

(a.) *Revenue and Criminal.*—The district staff generally consists of a magistrate and collector, a joint magistrate, 1st grade, a joint magistrate, 2nd grade, an assistant, and two uncovenanted deputy magistrates. Besides these

there are at present (1877) a settlement officer, an assistant settlement officer, and two settlement deputy collectors, a district superintendent of police and an assistant superintendent, 10 tahsildars or sub-magistrates and sub-collectors of revenue sub-divisions, a commissioner, deputy commissioner, collector, and inspector of customs, a cantonment magistrate, and four honorary special magistrates with local powers. Of these, the magistrate, joint magistrate, and one uncovenanted deputy magistrate are magistrates of the 1st class ; the assistant and one deputy magistrate usually of the 2nd class ; the sub-magistrates are partly of the 2nd and partly of the 3rd class ; and the special magistrates are generally all of the 3rd class. The deputy magistrates, the sub-magistrates, and three of the special magistrates are natives, the rest are Europeans.

(b.) *Civil.*—Agra is the headquarters of a civil and sessions judge, who has also the district of Muttra under him, and who controls the administration of the subordinate civil courts : these are—

One judge, small cause court.

One sub-judge.

Three munsifs, who reside at Agra, Jalesar, and Fatehabad.

In 1875 the total cost to the State of these courts was £8,308, and the amount realized by court fees and stamps was £12,847.

The number of cases decided by each court was as follows :—

Civil and sessions judge	472
Sub-judge	603
Small cause court judge	2,621
Munsifs	5,319
Magistrate	
Joint and assistant magistrates	4,072
Deputy magistrates	
Collectors	
Deputy collectors	2,537

The average value of the property under litigation in the civil courts was £23.

(c.) *Police.*—In the year 1875 the total strength of the district regular police force was 1,360. This number consisted of one district superintendent of police, one assistant superintendent, 146 officers subordinate to inspectors, 34 mounted constables, and 632 foot constables, besides 40 officers and 507 men paid from other than imperial revenues. The cost of maintaining this force was £15,510. The strength of the force is one man to every 1.37 square miles, and one man to every 804 persons of the total population. The cost of maintenance is equal to £8.4 per square mile, and 3.4d. per head of the population. Of the total cost of £15,510, £10,969 was payable from provincial revenues and £4,541 from other sources.

(d.) *Jails.*—There are at Agra three places of confinement for prisoners : (1) the central jail, (2) the district jail, (3) the magistrate's lock-up.

(1.) The central jail had in 1875 an average of 2,366 prisoners, of whom 2,203 were males and 163 females. It was under the control of a superintendent (a surgeon), who had under him a jailor and 125 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 28-15-0.

The average outturn of labour was Rs. 27.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 35,366.

The rate of mortality was 2·40 per cent. of average strength.

(2.) The district jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 623 prisoners, of whom 623 were males and no females. It is under the charge of the civil surgeon, who has under him a jailor and 40 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 28.

The average outturn of labour was Rs. 7.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 2,299.

The rate of mortality was 3·91 per cent. of average strength.

(3.) The lock-up contained in 1875 a daily average of 41 under-trial prisoners, of whom 40 were males and 1 female.

(e.) *Postal and Telegraph.*—Seven lines of telegraph leave the Agra telegraph station, viz.—(1) to Aligarh, (2) to Bharatpur, (3) to Cawnpur, (4) to Dholpur, (5) to Muttra, (6) to fort station, East Indian Railway, (7) to Rájpútána State Railway station. There are two telegraph offices on the Rájpútána State Railway, at Bichpuri, 6 miles from Agra; and at Achnera, 12 miles.

There are three telegraph offices on the East Indian Railway—at Tundla, 12 miles; Firozábád, 24 miles; and Barhan, 30 miles.

There will also be some on the Scindia State Railway when finished.

There are 17 imperial post-offices and twelve district offices in the Agra district : in 1871, 773,199 letters were despatched and 381,885 received. The receipts were £6,858, and the expenditure £4,887.

26. *Revenue and Finance.*—The district local funds amounted in 1875 to £ and the expenditure to £ . There are four municipalities in the district ; of these the receipts and expenditure were as follows in 1875 :—

Municipality.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Incidence of taxation per head.
	£	£	Rs. a. p.
Agra	13,462	12,954	0 11 5
Jalesar	1,158	900	0 7 5
Fatehpur Sikri...	461	399	0 7 4
Firozábád	893	740	0 9 0

The whole amount of revenue raised in the district, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, in 1876 was £1,231,983, or on a population of 1,096,367 an incidence per head of shillings : out of this £1,025,155, or per cent. of the total receipts, was returned to the district in payment for its administration.

The new settlement was commenced in 1872, and will be concluded about 1880 : it has at present resulted in an increase of revenue from £30,412 to £37,318, or by £6,905, and it has cost £21,312.

27. *Medical Statistics.*—There are seven dispensaries in this district,—at Agra, Loha-ki-mandi, Dharmásálá, Tajganj, Fatehpur Sikri, Firozábád, and Jalesar, the first four being in Agra itself.

During the year 1875, 55,375 persons in all were treated in these hospitals and dispensaries, of whom 53,654 were out-door and 1,521 in-door patients.

The total number of deaths in the year 1875 was 25,589, or 23·38 per 1,000 of the population : the mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 during the previous six years was 19·96.

There is no special endemic disease in the district. Cholera is most severe in the rainy season, and small-pox in the cold weather ; 10,000 cases of the latter occurred in Agra alone in the early part of 1869 ; intermittent and remittent fevers are common, and are due chiefly to insufficiency of clothing and changes of temperature : in the cold season they are often accompanied by inflammation of the lungs. There were 6,477 vaccine operations in 1871.

28. *Education.*—There were 538 schools in the district in 1875 with 13,744 scholars, which gives an average area of 3·54 square miles for each school, and a percentage of 1·25 scholars on the total population.

The vernacular schools are under the inspector of the circle and the local committee. The Government college is under the director of public instruction. It was established in 1823. St. John's College was established in 1854, and now teaches up to the B. A. standard of the Calcutta University. The Victoria College was founded in 1862 in opposition to St. John's College; both these are aided by Government. The largest Anglo-vernacular school is the one in the city called Mufid-i-ám : it is supported by the municipality and aided by Government. There are also Anglo-vernacular schools at Firozábád, Itimádpur, Fatehábád, and Fatehpur Sikri.

The language of instruction is almost entirely Hindi in the vernacular schools.

29. *Fairs and Chief Towns.*—The chief fairs are the Kailas mela near Sikandra, those at Jajganj and Birthila, and the Ramzan fair at Fatehpur Sikri.

These are mostly religious and pleasure fairs, as opposed to commercial ones, but a brisk trade is carried on in sweetmeats, toys, &c. At the Jagni fair (Gwalji) there is a good business done in stone vessels, mill-stones, iron vessels, pans, bill-hooks, and choppers.

Batesar is the great commercial fair of the district ; it is in parganah Pináhat, on the right bank of the Jumna. The fair begins four or five days after the Díwáli, reaches its climax on the last day of Kátik (full moon), and lasts ten days into Aghan : it was originally a religious fair, and the pilgrims still bathe in the Jumna on the full-moon day : there were 150,000 persons present in 1871 on that day, but only 20,000 to 50,000 on other days. It is chiefly famous as a horse fair, but there are cattle and camel fairs also.

There are generally from 4,000 to 7,000 horses present, about 10,000 cattle, and 3,000 camels ; and in 1871 there were 1,688 shops and booths. The sales begin three or four days before the bathing day, and go on till two days after it. Horses are brought chiefly from the Panjáb and the Meerut division, but some come from Cabul, and some from Rájputána. The horses are bought for British native cavalry regiments, by native states for their cavalry, and by the police, besides private purchasers.

30. *Archæology.*—The chief buildings and objects of antiquarian interest in Agra itself are described in the article on the city of Agra : those situated without the city are as follows :—

(1.) At Sikandra, about five miles north-west from Agra, on the Muttra road, are the tomb of the Emperor Akbar, built by his son Jahángir and completed in 1613, and the great archway of red sandstone by which entrance into the garden surrounding the mausoleum is obtained.

(2.) At Fatehpur Sikri, about 24 miles south-west from Agra, are the Buland Darwáza or grand gateway, the Dargah or sacred quadrangle with its mosque, built in 1571, Rájá Birbal's house, Mariam's house, the Khás Mahál, the Panj Mahál, the Aubh Míchauli, the Diwan-i-ám and Khás, the Háthi Pol, and the Hiran Mínár.

These buildings were all erected in Akbar's and Jahángir's time from 1556 to 1630 : the city was founded by Akbar in 1570, and it was abandoned within fifty years of its foundation.

In the suburbs of Agra are the Kos Mínár, the mausoleum of Sikandar Lodi, Sadiq Khan's tomb, the great Báoli, the Karbala, the Changa Modi Pul, and Firoz Khan's tomb.

ALLAHABAD.

ALLAHABAD.

A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. *Position and area.*—The district of Allahabad, bounded on the north by the Partábgarh district of Oudh, on the north-east by the district of Jaunpur, on the east by the district of Mirzapur, on the south by the territories of the Máhárájá of Rewah, on the south-west by the district of Bánta, and on the west by the district of Fatehpur, lies between north lat. $24^{\circ}38'30''$ and $25^{\circ}48'0''$ and east long. $81^{\circ}12'45''$ and $82^{\circ}38'30''$, and contains an area of 2,747 square miles, and a population of 1,396,241, or 508 to the square mile.

2. *Subdivisions.*—The district is divided into nine tahsílis or sub-collectorates and fourteen parganahs, as follows, proceeding from east to west—

	Tahsílis.	Parganahs.	Revenue, 1876.
Trans-Jumna ... {	1. Meja ...	1. Khairágárh.	3,78,727
	2. Karchana ...	2. Arail.	2,55,285
	3. Bárá.	3. Bárá.	1,30,550
	4. Handia ...	4. Kewai.	1,65,780
Trans-Ganges ... {	5. Phulpur ...	5. Meh.	1,56,892
	6. Soráon ...	6. Sikandra.	1,58,607
	7. Allahabad (Chail) ...	7. Jhusi.	1,42,087
	8. Siráthu ...	8. Soráon.	1,71,400
Doáb ... {	9. Manjhánpur ...	9. Nawábganj.	1,06,940
		10. Mirzápur Chauhári.	23,765
		11. Chail.	3,20,632
		12. Karrah.	2,04,140
		13. Karálí.	1,37,837
		14. Atharban.	1,00,647

3. *Physical geography and boundaries.*—This district is in the shape of an irregular triangle, of which the northern boundary is formed by the Fatehpur and Partábgarh districts, the eastern by Jaunpur and Mirzapur, and the western by Rewah and Bánta; and it is divided into three tolerably equal portions by the rivers Ganges and Jumna, which unite in the centre of the district just below the city of Allahabad.

The three portions are respectively called trans-Ganges, trans-Jumna, and Doáb (or between the rivers).

The trans-Ganges portion contains the sub-collectorates of Soráon, Phulpur, and Handia; the trans-Jumna portion consists of the sub-collectorates of

Bárá, Karchana, and Meja ; and the Doáb contains those of Chail, Siráthu, and Manjhanpur.

These three parts of the district vary much in physical character and in population. The Doáb is a level plain in the northern part along the Ganges, but all the southern part is intersected by the ravines of the Sasur Khaderi and other streams, and the surface is therefore extremely irregular. The trans-Ganges part is a level, highly cultivated plain, very densely populated, and having scarcely any waste land in it. The trans-Jumna portion consists, like the Doáb, of two very dissimilar parts. There is a strip of level and highly cultivated land along the southern bank of the Ganges, extending from 6 to 8 miles southward from it. From this point the land rises in a series of undulating ridges and plateaus till the Kaimur hills themselves are reached. These are beyond the boundaries of the district, but the land slopes up to them almost continuously from the Ganges on the north and the Jumna on the west. The average length of the district from east to west is 60 miles, and its average breadth from north to south is 45 miles. Its boundary on the west side is an irregular line running from Kishnpur (near the Alwara lake) on the Jumna to Sultánpur on the Ganges, opposite to the town of Sunamau in the Pártábgarh district of Oudh ; this line cuts the East Indian Railway at 45 miles west of Allahabad.

Its southern boundary is a line running chiefly in a south-east direction from the Alwara lake and the Rajápur ghát on the Jumna, and following the course of the Jumna as far as the boundary of the Bántá and Allahabad districts, where it strikes due south along parganah Bárah, till it reaches the Tons river, and follows that and the Biland (an affluent of the former) for some ten miles ; it then crosses to the south of the Biland and runs south-east till it reaches long. E. $82^{\circ}10'$.

The eastern boundary starts from the point just mentioned, and runs due north, past Mánáda to Chachua on the Ganges, and thence to a point on the Barna river, where the boundaries of the three districts of Jaunpur, Mirzapur, and Allahabad meet.

The northern boundary runs from this point irregularly north-west to the Majgaon lake, and thence westwards through Mau Aima to Khánjahánpur on the Ganges ; from there it follows the course of the Ganges up to Sunaman, where it meets the western boundary.

The general character of the district is that of the alluvial plains found in the Doáb, a perfectly level tract of highly cultivated land, interspersed here and there with patches of úsar, or land covered with saline efflorescence, and quite bare.

But, as mentioned above, there are two exceptions to this general character : the first, the southern portion of the Doáb division, which is extensively intersected with ravines, both those running up from the Jumna itself and those extending laterally from its tributaries, the Sasur Khaderi and Klinahabi ; these cut up the surface of the land into innumerable valleys and ridges, mostly sharp and steep, but occasionally sloping and rounded, and give it all the character of a hilly country on a small scale, with this difference, that the tops of the hills are only on a level with the average elevation of the surrounding plain country, while the valleys are far below it, having been scooped out of the plain by the action of all the streamlets which flow into the rivers during the rains. The second is the southern portion of the trans-Jumna division ; here the plain country only extends to a few miles from the Ganges and the Jumna, after which the land gradually rises in long rolls topped by plateaus, till beyond the southern boundary of the district it forms the Kaimur range of mountains. All this part of the district is of course at a much greater elevation than the rest ; and though between the successive ranges there are large plateaus of ground which are cultivated more or less generally, still the mass of the land is uncultivated and stony, and only covered with scrub jungle, or a few scattered trees planted by the inhabitants from time to time. It is naturally but sparsely populated, and the villages are often at a great distance from one another.

4. *Rivers.*—The chief rivers of the district are of course (1) the Ganges and (2) the Jumna, the former of which flows throughout the whole length of the district, and the latter through the western half of it, till it joins the Ganges below the city of Allahabad ; but, besides these two, there are several smaller streams and one river of considerable size, the Tons, which flows through the trans-Jumna portion of the district.

The watersheds of the three portions of the district are quite separate. In the Doáb the watershed is, as in the neighbouring district of Fatehpur, a ridge of high land running parallel to the Ganges at a distance of 4 or 5 miles from it, and all the streams therefore fall into the Jumna, which is from 10 to 20 miles from it. In the trans-Jumna portion there is one ridge running through the Bárah parganah from north-west to south-east, nearly at right angles to the course of the Jumna ; and there is another in the Khairágarh parganah, running from east to west, nearly parallel to the Ganges, and from 8 to 10 miles south of it. These two are separated by the valley of the Tons river, the streams which flow into it rising in these ridges on each side.

In the trans-Ganges portion there is no very distinct watershed, nor are there any streams of importance ; the country within 10 or 12 miles of the

Ganges drains into that river, while the tract beyond sends its contributions to the large lakes at Umaria and Majgaon, just beyond the north boundary of the district, and to the Barna river, which, rising within this district, afterwards separates the districts of Mirzapur and Jaunpur.

(1.)—The Ganges forms the northern boundary of the district from its western extremity at Sunamau in Oudh to Khánjahánpur on the Oudh side, and Alam Chand on the Allahabad side. Here it enters the district, flowing between the parganahs of Nawábganj, Soráon, and Jhusi on the north, and Chail on the south, till it meets the river Junna four miles below the city of Allahabad; thence it divides parganahs Jhusi and Kawai on the north from Arail and Khairágarh on the south. It is of course at all times a very large river, and in the rains is an enormous one, being three miles broad just below Allahabad. Its waters are almost always turbid and muddy, and they may be seen flowing in a distinct stream clearly marked out from the deep-blue waters of the Jumna to a considerable distance from the point of junction, like those of the Rhône and the Sâone at Lyons, or of the Rhône and the Arve at Geneva. On its northern bank it leaves this district at a village called Karaundia, but it thence takes an enormous horse-shoe sweep to the south, and on its southern bank does not leave the district till it reaches a point opposite Chachna, eleven miles further east. The Gauges is nowhere bridged in this district, though bridges of boats exist at Phaphamau and Jhusi.

(2.)—The Jumna forms the southern boundary of the district from Rájapur ghât on the road to Bânda, and near the Alwara lake, to a point near Partápur, 36 miles further east, where it enters the district and divides the parganah of Chail on the north from those of Bárah and Arail on the south; continuing its course for 30 miles in a north-eastern direction, it falls into the Ganges four miles below Allahabad. It is always a deep, powerful stream, very clear and rapid, and in the rains it swells to a fiercely rushing river with an immense volume of water, which tests to its utmost limit the strength of the great railway bridge over it which conveys the East Indian Railway into the Doáb at Allahabad. It is distinguished from the Ganges by its more rapid and clearer stream, by its higher and more precipitous cliffs, and by the deeper and more rugged ravines which line both its banks, and convey to it the contributions of the numberless smaller streams which drain the surrounding country.

(3.) *The Tons.*—This is a river of considerable size and volume, which by the time it reaches the Ganges near Sirsa station has attained formidable dimensions, and is bridged by a large iron girder bridge on the East Indian Railway. It rises far away to the south in the Bandair hills of Bundelkhand, near the

Jokai station of the Jabbalpur branch of the East Indian Railway, and running a course of 150 miles through the impenetrable and unvisited jungles of the Ramnagar and Rewah territories, enters the Allahabad district in long. $81^{\circ} 50' E.$ near the town of Khirka, and thence flows for another 50 miles in a N.-E. direction till it reaches the Ganges at Sirsa.

In this district it is a large and rapid river, carrying down a great volume of water and draining the whole trans-Jumna portion of the district.

Besides these three rivers there are several smaller streams, such as—

A. In the trans-Jumna division. (1.)—The Lappari Nadi in the Khairágarh parganah, which rising near Unchadeh runs 30 miles due west and falls into the Tons at Khirka..

(2.)—The Loni Nadi, which rising on the borders of the Chibu parganah of Bánáda and the Bárah parganah of this district, near Shiorájpur, flows partly through native territory and partly through Bárah in a S. E. direction for 18 miles till it flows into the Tons 8 miles west of Khirka.

(3.)—The Biland river, which only comes into this district during the latter portion of its course. It rises near Shahganj, in the Mirzapur district, and flows 70 miles due west, till it enters the Allahabad district in long. $82^{\circ} 18' E.$: it then goes on westward past the town and fort of Dhaia for 40 miles, till it falls into the Tons about 5 miles west of Khirka ; but a portion of this course is not within the Allahabad district. It is the most considerable of the affluents of the Tons, and in the rains is a large stream.

B. In the Doab division. (1.)—The Sasur Khaderi rises near Sonth in the Hatgaon parganah of the Fatehpur district, and soon after enters this district in the Karra parganah, through which it flows, and after passing through the Karáli and Chail parganas for about 40 miles it falls into the Jumna about 5 miles west of Allahabad. It is a large deep stream in the rains, and is bridged in four or five places in this district, particularly where the Allahabad and Bánáda road crosses it.

(2.)—The Klinahahi, a smaller stream rising north of Karáli and flowing past it southwards into the Jumna at the borders of the Karáli and Chail parganahs: it has only a course of some 20 miles.

C.—In the trans-Ganges division there are no streams worth speaking of.

5. *Lakes.*—The district is so well drained by the Ganges and Jumna and their subsidiary streams that there are no lakes of any size in it except the Alwára lake, in the extreme western corner of the district. This is situated only two miles from the Jumna, which curves more than half round it, and it

is separated from the river by a ridge of high land. It is two and a half miles long from west to east, and nearly two miles broad from north to south; it is nowhere very deep, and in the winter it rarely exceeds three or four feet in any part. It abounds with wild ducks, teal, coot, wild geese, water-hens, &c.; these fly constantly backwards and forwards between it and the Jumna, as they find each less disturbed or more productive of food. The Alwára jhil is a permanent one, and is never dry even in the hottest weather.

6. *Forests and waste lands.*—There are no forests or waste lands in the Doáb or the trans-Ganges portions of the district, with the exception of the scattered úsar plains which occur here and there, and the ravine tract along the Jumna, but in the trans-Jumna division there are extensive tracts of hilly and forest land entirely uncultivated and waste, and only covered by a natural growth of scrub jungle, with a few trees interspersed. The most extensive of these are:—

(1.)—A tract in the north of parganah Khairágarh enclosed by a line drawn from Kohrar to Unchadeh on the south, and from Meja to Mánáda on the north: this is about 25 miles long from east to west, and from 5 to 6 miles broad from north to south.

(2.)—A tract in the middle of parganah Bárah stretching from Bansi in the south, between Bárah and Shiorájpur, to Simri on the Jumna: this is about 15 miles long from north to south, and 5 miles broad from east to west.

(3.)—A tract in the extreme south, of parganah Khairágarh, south of the Biland river, stretching from Barokar, south of Daia, to the eastern boundary of the district: this is about 15 miles long by 5 broad. It forms part of the first or outer range of the Kaimur hills, which form the northern boundary of the Rewah territory, and lie immediately south of the valley of the Tons; the inner or southern range being 20 to 30 miles further south, and forming the northern boundary of the valley of the river Sone. The country between the two ranges is a high plateau of comparatively level land, but it is entirely outside the limits of British territory, only touching it in the extreme south-east corner of the Allahabad district.

7. *Geology.*—The Doáb and trans-Ganges portions of the district are, like the whole of the Doáb, merely alluvial plains deposited by the great rivers Ganges and Jumna. The alluvial deposits are of unknown depth, but a section of the upper layers generally gives loam 35 feet, blue silt 30 feet, strong clay 20 feet, resting on a water-bed of reddish sand, but in the lower Doáb the beds are not as thick as this.

The trans-Jumna portion of the district is quite different: here the alluvial plain only extends to from 5 to 10 miles south of the Ganges; and from a line

drawn from Bára through Meja to Mánáda the country rises gradually in a series of sandstone ridges and plateaus, which are the outlying spurs of the Kaimur range. The first ridge or terrace extends from the above line to the outer range of the Kaimurs proper, and this tract is nearly all in the Allahabad district. The second terrace extends from the outer Kaimur range to the main Kaimurs, which rise just north of the valley of the Sone : this is almost entirely in Rewah territory. These are both portions of the lower terrace of the great Vindhyan plateau, and are formed entirely of the Kaimur sandstone, which is the bottom group of the upper Vindhyan rock series.

8. *Climate*.—The climate of the district is that of an ordinary Doáb district in all but the extreme southern portion, where among the sandstone hills the extreme heat and dryness which characterize Rewah prevails. The dry, hot west winds have lost much of their force by the time they reach this district, and though the hot weather is very long (from the 1st April to 31st October), it is rarely so intensely hot as it is further west ; and from the proximity of the two rivers there is generally in the rains a somewhat cool wind blowing from either the Ganges or the Jumna which renders the station of Allahabad slightly preferable in this respect to other stations which are not situated on rivers.

The district is supposed to be fairly healthy, though the city and station of Allahabad, from their great size, are rarely without cholera or some other epidemic. The description of the climate and rains which is given under the head of the Fatehpur district applies equally to Allahabad, the two stations being only 70 miles apart; but Fatehpur is distinctly colder in the cold weather, and the hot weather sets in earlier and ends later in Allahabad.

The prevailing wind throughout the year is westerly, but it blows with much less force than further west, and is often not strong enough to make the tattis or wetted grass screens perform their duty of cooling the air. The average rainfall of the eleven years from 1860 to 1871 was 38·3 inches : the greatest fall was in 1870-71, viz., 55·6, and the least was 20·6 in 1864-65, when there was almost a famine.

9. *Minerals and trees*.—There are no minerals in the district except the saline or saltpetre earth found on the ûsar plains, which is used to make both refined salt and saltpetre. This abounds extensively in the trans-Ganges portion of the district, and is also found in the Doab. The brine obtained by allowing water to trickle through the saline earth is evaporated in pans and the saltpetre is left behind.

No minerals are known to occur in the sandstone rocks of the Kaimur range within this district, though diamonds and other precious stones are found

in the Rewah territory, and are obtained by washing the deposits brought down by the streams. The sandstone rock is itself quarried for building purposes, particularly in the Báráh pargana, at Shiorájpur, Partábpur, and Bariári. The red sandstone of which the High Court and public buildings are built came from Partábpur : the stone from Shiorájpur is of a whitish-grey colour, and that from Bariári is somewhat inferior in quality.

The trees are the ordinary ones of a Doáb district—the mango (ám), mahua, nim, pípal, bargad, gúlar, amaltás, bakain, kachnár, rerh, sirsá, nim chamelí, shisham, jámun, bair, lasaura, date (kajur) palm, tár, imli, dhák, babúl, kathal, and bel being the commonest, while the tún and the teak are only found where they have been planted artificially.

10. *Animals and birds.*—All the domestic animals usually found in Upper India exist in this district. The cattle used are chiefly of the small Bundel-khandi breed, but many of the large cattle from the Upper Doáb are imported also. Their price varies from £3 to £8 or £9, and even £12 or £15 are sometimes paid for the best trotting bullocks for bailis or ox-carts.

Of wild animals, all the usual species but the tiger and lion occur ; wolves and wild boars are very common in the trans-Jumna country, and leopards are not unfrequently met with.

Of deer, the antelope and the ravine deer are common ; the blue-bull or nilgai is less common than it is further west. The hare, wild cat, jackal, fox, and monkey abound in the district.

Of birds, wild-fowl of all kinds are abundant along the rivers and in the trans-Ganges subdivision ; bustard, sand-grouse, rock-pigeon, and partridge in the ravines and hills of the trans-Jumna country ; and quail, peafowl, kulang, curlews, and plovers all over the district.

The chief fish are the rahu, the bachua, the anwári (mullet), the hilsa, and the pariási, which are all fit for the table. A certain number of persons earn their living by fishing in the Ganges and Jumna chiefly in order to supply the city and station of Allahabad.

11. *Population.*—The total population of the district in the three last censuses was—

1853	1,379,788
1865	1,393,183
1872	1,396,241

showing an actual increase of 16,453, and an increase of 1·2 per cent. during the twenty years from 1853 to 1872.

The proportions of males and females at the two censuses of 1853 and 1865 was—

Year.	Males.	Females.	Total.
1853	722,798	656,990	1,379,788
1865	734,503	658,680	1,393,183
Actual increase ...	11,705	1,690	13,395
Increase per cent. ...	1·61	.25	.97

(A.) *Census of 1865.*—In 1865 Allahabad had 3,944 villages or mauzas, was 2,764·95 square miles (statute) and 1,769,567 acres in extent, of which 991,021 were cultivated, 212,605 were culturable (both these being assessed for revenue), while 53,932 were exempted and 512,009 were barren (these being unassessed).

The land revenue was Rs. 20,41,844, which falls on the total area at the rate of Re. 1-2-6 per acre, on the assessed area at Re. 1-11-2, and on the area actually cultivated at Rs. 2-5-1. The population being 1,393,183, the land revenue was at the rate of Re. 1-7-5 per head, and there were 504 persons per square mile.

There were 319,915 houses in the district, which gives 4·35 persons to each house, and in the city of Allahabad there were 21,876 houses and 105,926 persons, or 4·84 to each house.

Of the 3,521 inhabited villages, the following had less than the populations named in the first column in the two censuses of 1865 and 1872:—

Population.	Number of villages.		
	1865.	1872.	Difference.
Less than 200	1,490	1,516	+26
200 to 500	1,52	1,229	-23
500 to 1,000	661	561	...
1,000 to 2,000	177	156	-21
2,000 to 5,000	40	39	-1
5,000 to 10,000	1	+1
10,000 to 50,000
Above 50,000	1	1	...
Total	3,521	3,503	-18

The following were the numbers of the principal castes and religions :—

Hindús ...	Brahmans	184,889, of whom 46,183 were Tewáris.
	Khatriyas	57,547, of whom 19,763 were Bais.
	Vaisyas	50,529, of whom 31,763 were Kasar-
				wani Baniahs.
	Sudras	{ 919,555, of whom 134,608 were Ahirs, 121,140 Kurmis, and 134,048 Chamárs.
Musalmáns	167,168, of whom 12,939 were Patháns.
Christians	1,824, of whom 398 were Europeans.

As regards occupation, the following professions numbered over 5,000 each :—

Blacksmiths	8,486	Cotton cleaners	9,887
Priests and beggars *	32,195	Labourers	260,218
Shopkeepers †	7,996	Barbers	12,886
Tailors	6,526	Grain parchers	9,918
Weavers	38,921	Corn dealers	6,399
Dhobis	11,874	Potters	9,896
Mahájans (bankers)	5,143	Grain dealers	21,161
Service	98,702	Ghi and oil sellers	15,434
Goldsmiths...	6,049	Cultivators	773,343

There were no towns in the district with a population of over 5,000 except the city of Allahabad, which has 105,926, and is the third largest town in the North-Western Provinces.

(B.) *Census of 1872.*—In 1872 Allahabad was 2,747 square statute miles in extent; it had 3,503 villages and 303,900 houses, with a total population of 1,396,241. The number of persons per square mile was 508, and of villages was 1·3. There were on an average 399 persons in each village and 4·5 persons per house.

Of the 303,900 houses, 7,041 were pakka and 296,859 were kacha.

Of the total population of 1,396,241, there were 715,110 males and 679,135 females. The Hindús numbered 1,211,778, of whom 624,073 were males and 587,705 were females; the Musalmáns were 181,574, of whom 90,567 were males and 91,007 females; and the Christians, &c., numbered 893, of whom 470 were males and 423 females. The percentages of each kind on the total population were Hindús 86·9, Musalmáns 13·1, males 51·3, females 48·7.

As regards age, the percentage of persons of both sexes above 60 was 2·6, and this proportion may therefore be fairly deducted from the effective strength of the population of the district.

There were 19,924 males able to read and write out of a total male population of 715,110, or 2·7 per cent. With regard to matters relating to the land

* Placed together in census returns. † Not defined.

and land revenue, the total agricultural population was 660,344 ; the area of land assessed for Government revenue was 2,708 square miles, of which 813 were uncultivable, 280 cultivable, and 1,614 cultivated ; the total area was 2,747, of which 824 was uncultivable, 286 cultivable, and 1,637 cultivated.

The amount of land revenue payable was Rs. 21,38,705, while the rates and cesses on land amounted to Rs. 2,08,664 ; the percentage of the agricultural population on the total population was 47·3, while the incidence of the land revenue per culturable acre was Re. 1-12-2.

The following were the numbers of the principal Hindú castes and of the four sects of Musalmáns :—

Hindús	Brahmans	173,916
	Rajputs	49,594
	Banials	43,972
	Ahirs	133,240
	Chamárs	136,131
	Kayaths	20,996
	Kurmis	129,487
Musalmáns...	Shekhs	151,510
	Saiads	11,246
	Mughals	1,138
	Patháns	16,329

As regards occupation, the number of males above 15 in each of the six great classes was as follows :—

Professional	2,680
Domestic	50,749
Commercial	32,454
Agricultural	234,112
Industrial	13,840
Indefinite	125,858
Total	459,693

12. *Town and village population.*—There are 9 tahsílis, 14 parganahs, and 3,503 villages in the district ; of these latter 1,516 contain less than 200 inhabitants, 1,229 contain from 200 to 500 ; 561 from 500 to 1,000 ; 156 from 1,000 to 2,000 ; 29 from 2,000 to 3,000 ; 10 from 3,000 to 5,000 ; 1 from 5,000 to 10,000 ; and 1 above 20,000. There are therefore two towns with more than 5,000 inhabitants—Allahabad city with 143,693, and Mau Aima with 6,189.

There are no fortified or walled towns in the district, but the fort of Allahabad, at the junction of the Ganges and Jumna, is of considerable strength, and is garrisoned by a European force. There are also some small forts along the Jumna and in Khairágarh, such as the Dhaia Rajá's at Dhaia. There were

296,859 kacha houses and 7,041 pakka ones in the district, or 303,900 in all. The houses in villages are mostly mud-roofed, but some are tiled : in the large towns there are two-storied houses, and in the city of Allahabad there are houses of every kind, from the mud hovel to the showy and ornate mansions of the rich bankers at Kydganj and the garden palace of the Alopibagh.

All the better class of houses are built round a sahan or courtyard, which is used for sitting in and for the domestic purposes of the numerous families which inhabit the surrounding apartments.

As there are 3,503 villages and 2,747 square miles in the district, there is on an average one village to every .78 square miles, or about $1\frac{1}{3}$ village to each square mile, and the average number of inhabitants to each village is 398.

The following towns contained a population of more than 3,000 in 1872 :—

1. Allahabad	143,693
2. Mau Aima	6,189

13. *Value of house and furniture.*—The number of houses was 303,900, and of persons 1,396,241, so that there was an average of 4·6 persons to each house : and there were 42 kacha or mud-houses to every 1 pakka or masonry house. The cost of building a large pakka house of the best kind would vary from £250 to £1,200, or even more ; of the second kind from £15 to £200 ; and of the third from £1 to £2.

14. *Trades unions.*—There are no trades unions, in the strict sense of the term, in the district ; but each trade has its panchayat and its caste rules, which practically amount to very much the same thing. A baniah would not be allowed to sell grain at a lower rate than his neighbours, or would incur great odium if he did so ; and a labourer or mason who worked for less than the usual rate of wages would probably be put out of caste by his caste panchayat. These panchayats of course take notice of many other matters besides those which would naturally fall to the consideration of a trades union : they particularly notice all infringements of their religious rules, or of moral and social customs prescribed by their religion.

15. *Village communities.*—The villages in this district, as in nearly all in the North-West, may be classified into three kinds, according to the modes in which the land is held and the Government revenue paid :—

(1.) *Zamindari.*—Where the whole of the land belongs to several owners in joint occupation, one (or more) of the owners is usually selected by the rest to manage the estate and to collect the Government revenue and pay it in to Government ; in these villages there are no pattis or separate shares of

land marked off from the rest, but each proprietor owns a defined proportion of the total produce of the estate.

(2.) *Imperfect pattidari*.—Where the village is partly held by several owners in joint occupation, and partly by several owners in severalty or separate occupation. Here the tenure is partly of the first class and partly of the third class, and each portion is managed as if it were a separate estate belonging to that class.

(3.) *Pattidari*.—Where the land has been completely divided among the sharers, and is held by several owners in severalty, but under one tenure as regards the Government. Here the lands and homesteads are entirely divided off to each owner, but the whole estate remains liable for the Government revenue or any part of it.

There is also a fourth kind of mahál or estate, called Bhaia-chara, where, though it belongs to the second or third class, the rights and interest of each co-sharer are not determined by his ancestral share, but by custom or possession. In all these classes of estates the settlement of the revenue to be paid to Government is a joint settlement, i.e., all the co-sharers are responsible for the fulfilment of the contract, and all the co-sharers, jointly and severally, and the entire mahil are responsible for the whole of the revenue. In most estates of the North-Western Provinces the cultivated land will fall into three classes : (1) the land occupied by the owner or demesne or sir land or a home farm : its limits are definitely fixed, and no tenant can acquire a right of occupancy on it ; (2) the land held by tenants-at-will or on terminable leases given at the pleasure of the owners; (3) land held by tenants having a right of occupancy, who cannot be ousted, except by legal process, for non-payment of rent, and whose rent cannot be raised except by a regular suit in a court of law and on certain specified grounds. These were in most cases originally part-proprietors of the estate or relatives of the proprietors or dependants to whom such rights had been given as a favour: they were seldom men of inferior caste, and their privileges could be acquired by inheritance only.

These three kinds of villages include all the modes of tenure of land, and of payment of the land revenue to Government, but there are of course innumerable diversities of village organization with regard to the relations of the different members to one another.

A very common, and perhaps the oldest, form is where there is a governing body of Thákurs (or occasionally Ahirs or Brahmans) owning the land and letting it out to cultivators of inferior caste, with the exception of a small portion reserved for their own use, and called sir land ; a number of fairly

well-to-do peasants, Kachis, Kurniis, Lodhs, &c., holding the land from the Thákurs and looking up to them as the superior race (with these may be classed the baniahs, mahájans, and tradesmen generally, who, though not ranking with the Thákurs, consider themselves far above the third class); and lastly the day labourers, tanners, sweepers, domestic servants, &c., who are chiefly Pásis, Chamárs, Doms, and Arakhs, who are much darker and more slightly built than the others, and are regarded by them as an inferior race. There are also of course the ordinary village servants and officers, such as the lambardar or headman, the patwári or accountant, the parohit or family priest, the kumhár or potter, the hajjám (or nái) or barber, the barhei or carpenter, the lohár or smith, the darzi or tailor, the mochi or shoemaker, the dhobi or washerman, the chamár or tanner, the mehtar (or dom) or sweeper, the bhangi or scavenger, and the chaukidar (or pásbán) or watchman. The bihishti or water-carrier, the sonár or goldsmith, and the bhát or singer are also to be found in most villages.

16. *Condition of the people.*—Among the Hindús of the district (if the classification adopted in the Bombay Gazetteer be accepted) the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the 1st class, or having incomes over £100 a year, £96 to £180; (2) for those in the 2nd class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 a year, about £24 to £60; and (3) for those in the 3rd class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns it would be rather more, as their habits are somewhat more expensive.

17. *Character of the soil.*—The Allahabad district contains 2,708 square miles; of this all but 11 is assessed. Of the 2,697 miles of assessed land 813 is uncultivable, 280 is cultivable, and 1,614 is cultivated. The soil consists of the three kinds ordinarily found in the Doáb and neighbouring districts, *viz.*, (1) dumat or clay and sand, (2) bhúr or balwa or sandy, and (3) mattiar or rich clay. There is also a small quantity of the már or black soil along the Jumna in parganahs Bárah, Karáli, and Atharban. Where there are a great many small proprietors the owner often cultivates all, or nearly all, his land himself, but, as a rule, the greater portion is leased to cultivating tenants. Of the 337,690 acres in the six parganahs in which details are given 37,896 acres are held sír, *i.e.*, cultivated by the owners, and 299,794 acres are cultivated by tenants, *i.e.*, the sír is 12 per cent. of the tenant-held land.

The whole of the district is liable to re-assessment for Government revenue, there being no permanently settled estates, except where maâfis or alienations of the revenue have been made for special purposes, generally as rewards for good service.

18. *Course of tillage.*—There are two harvests, the kharif or autumn one, and the rabi or spring one. The kharif crops are sown in June, directly the first rain falls, and are harvested in October and November, and some of the rice in September, or even as early as the end of August; but cotton is not ripe for picking till February. Besides cotton and rice they include bajra, jowar, mot, &c. The rabi crops are sown in October and November, and reaped in March and April: they consist of corn, barley, oats, vetch and peas, and dál or arhar. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both crops; land is allowed to lie fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it, and, as a rule, spring and autumn crops are not taken off the same land, but sometimes a crop of rice is taken in the autumn, and another crop of some kind in the spring.

19. *Years of scarcity.*—The first famine of which any record is preserved in this district is the great one of 1770, when the officer commanding at Allahabad declined to allow any of the grain he had collected for his troops to be sent to the starving population of Bahar on the ground that he could get no more, as the people stopped his boats and prevented his collecting grain. (Girdlestone, Famine Report, p. 7.) The famine of 1783 was not felt so much about Allahabad as it was further west, but even here it was severe. In 1803-4 all the cattle died from the drought, and the Collector applied for money to replace them; the whole of the kharif crops were destroyed in this year (Girdlestone, p. 14), and only half the rabi was with difficulty preserved: the famine was worst in the trans-Jumna parganahs. There is no record of the effect of the minor famines between 1813 and 1837 in this district. The great famine of 1837 was very severely felt in it: in July the Ganges had only risen 8 feet instead of 24 (Girdlestone, p. 43): there was a partial fall of rain in September, but the relief was only temporary, and plundering and violence of all kinds soon began to prevail: the kharif harvest failed totally, and the rabi was in great peril, but was at last saved with difficulty, and the district did not suffer with the same intensity as those west of Cawnpur. Colonel Baird Smith estimates the total loss of revenue from this famine at £1,089,000. The next great famine was that of 1860-61, when scarcity began to be felt as early as July; very little rain fell in August, and none in September, and in October measures of relief had to be instituted; the famine here was not as bad as in the Upper Doab and Rohilkhand, but in July, 1860, the Lieutenant-Governor wrote that the accounts from this district were little less alarming than from there. In 1873-74, the year of the great famine in Bengal, severe scarcity existed in the trans-Jumna parganahs of this district, but relief works were set on foot,

and the people were helped to tide over the worst time till the rains of 1874 fell, after which no assistance was needed.

* 20. *Communications and trade.*—There are six chief roads in this district, viz., (1) the Grand Trunk Road, running right through the district from east to west for 75 miles, and conveying all the main traffic of the district; (2) the Jaunpur Road, running 20 miles north-east from Allahabad towards Jaunpur; (3) the Faizábád Road, running through Sultánpur and Partábgarh 25 miles in a northerly direction; (4) the Bánáda Road, crossing the Jumna at Rájapur ghát and running 50 miles in a south-west direction; (5) the Rewah Road, running 30 miles due south into the territories of the Mágárajá of Rewah; (6) the Mirzapur Road, running 36 miles due east towards Mirzapur, and on the south bank of the Ganges, while the Grand Trunk Road runs at a short distance from the north bank.

The other means of communication are by railroad and by river navigation. The East Indian Railway (main line) runs right through the whole length of the district from a little north of Mánáda on the borders of Mirzapur to a point half-way between the stations of Siráthu and Khágá, where it enters the Fatehpur district. It first runs for 37 miles south of the Ganges through the Khairágárh and Arail parganahs ; it then crosses the Jumna by the great iron girder bridge at Naini, and enters the Doab, passing between the city and station of Allahabad ; it runs thence north-westerly through the Doáb parganahs of Chail and Karrah, till it passes into Fatehpur at the 43rd mile from Allahabad.

The stations in the Allahabad district in order from east to west are :—

				Distance from Calcutta.	Interval.
1. Nawai	530	...
2. Sirsa Road	541	11
3. Karchana	553	12
4. Naini	560	7
5. Allahabad	564	4
6. Manauri	575	11
7. Bharwári	588	13
8. Siráthu	600	12
Total	70

The great iron railway bridge by which the East Indian Railway passes across the Jumna into the Doáb is 1,110 yards long ; its height above bed of river is 106 feet ; it consists of 18 piers with 14 spans of 212 feet each, and 3 spans of 30 feet each ; the total cost was £444,632, and it was opened

for traffic in August 1865. Besides the main line, the East Indian Railway has a branch, called the Jabbalpur branch, running through a portion of this district. Though called a branch, it is really the main line to Bombây, and connects for all through traffic and mails with the Great Indian Peninsula line at Jabbalpur, 230 miles south-west of Allahabad. It leaves the main line at Naini junction, four miles east of Allahabad, and runs in a south-west direction through the parganahs of Arail and Bârah to a point two miles south of Shiorájpur in the latter parganah, where it passes into the Bânda district. The stations and distances are as follows :—

			Distance from Alla-habad.	Interval.
Naini junction	5
Jasra	15	10
Shiorájpur	20	5
Total		20

The only other railway work of importance in the district is the iron girder bridge over the Tons at Pânnâsa, on the borders of the Arail and Khairâgarh parganahs, about three miles above the point where the Tons falls into the Ganges.

This bridge consists of 7 spans of 150 feet each and 2 spans of 32 feet, supported on 10 piers 76 feet above bed of river; the total length is 402 yards, and the total cost was £140,840; it was opened for traffic in April 1864.

The rivers Ganges and Jumna are both navigable throughout the whole of their course in this district, and till quite lately steamers came up the Ganges from Calcutta to Allahabad, plying regularly with passengers and freight; but this traffic is now superseded by the railway, and it is believed that no steamers have run for some time now.

A large quantity of both cotton and grain, and also miscellaneous produce, is sent down both rivers in native sailing boats, which, if the wind is not favourable, are allowed to float down with the stream, and which are afterwards tugged back again up-stream by their crews with a tow-rope.

21. *Money-lending, wages, and prices.*—The bankers and large traders of Allahabad are chiefly Khatris and Baniahs, though a few Brahmans and one or two Bengalis conduct large businesses. They have agencies at Calcutta, Patna, Benares, Mirzapur, Cawnpur, Agra, and Hâthras, and themselves act as agents for other firms at those places.

The rates of interest at present (1877) charged in the districts are as follows :—

- (a.)—In small transactions, when articles are pawned, from 12 to 15 per cent.
- (b.)—In small transactions, when personal security is given, from 18 to 37 per cent.
- (c.)—In large transactions, when jewels, &c., are pledged, from 6 to 12 per cent.
- (d.)—When bankers lend money to bankers on personal security, 6 to 9 per cent.
- (e.)—When land is mortgaged, from 9 to 18 per cent.

The rates of wages are as follows :—

- (a.)—Coolies and unskilled town labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ pence a day.
- (b.)—Agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 pence a day.
- (c.)—Bricklayers and carpenters, 6 pence to 2 shillings a day.

Female labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men.

Boys of from 12 to 16 get two-thirds of the wages of full-grown men.

Boys younger than that and girls from one-half to one-third.

The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were as follows :—

	<i>Number of seers (2lbs.) for a rupee (2s.)</i>				<i>Average.</i>
	<i>1st April.</i>	<i>1st August.</i>	<i>1st December.</i>		
Wheat	26	28	21
Rice	8½	11	11
Jowár	37	31	37½
Bájra	36	30½	30
Dál	20	20	23

22. *History.*—The Allahabad district originally formed part of the Madhyadesa mentioned by Manu in his Institutes, and defined “as the tract between the Himalaya and the Vindhya mountains, west of Prayag, and east of Vinasana.” The first mention of the city of Allahabad is in the Málábhárata, where it is called Váranávata. The Pandava brethren were banished here about the 14th century before Christ. All the trans-Jumna parganahs were vast forests inhabited by Bhils only.

By the time of the Rámáyana the trans-Ganges parganahs had fallen under the sway of the Rájá of Kosala, whose capital was Ajudhia (Faizábád). When Rámá, Sita, and Lakshman were banished, Guha, king of the Bhils, welcomed them at Singror, in parganah Nawábganj, and sent them in a boat across the Ganges; thence they travelled to Allahabad and crossed the Jumna into Bundelkhand. Some time after this Bhárata came in search of Rámá, and was sent with his army by the same route by king Guha. These are the only occasions on which this district is mentioned in the very early times, and the next mention is four centuries after Christ, when Fah Hian, the Chinese pilgrim, found it still part of the kingdom of Kosala. In the beginning of the 7th century Hiouen Tsang visited Prág (the Hindu name of Allahabad), where he found two Buddhist convents and hundreds of Hindu temples. All the country round he describes as wild and covered with forests.

In 1194 the district was subjugated by the Patháns under Muhammad Shahab-ud-din of Ghor, and this is the first occasion on which Musalmáns appeared on the scene. In 1286 A.D. Muiz-ud-din and his father Nasir-ud-din held their celebrated meeting in this district, when they resolved on peace and prevented a struggle for the throne. Muiz-ud-din had just succeeded Balban on the throne, and his father, who was in Bengal at the time, was marching up to attack him and enforce his own rights to the succession. They met at Karrah, and wishing to avoid bloodshed they each went out into the middle of the Ganges in a boat unarmed, and after a conference agreed to unite their forces and march to Dehli together. Throughout the 13th and 14th centuries the history of Allahabad was that of the province or feof of Karrah: this was always the headquarters of the governor. At the end of the 13th century Karrah was held by Malik Chaju, and he in alliance with Malik Ali, the governor of Oudh, revolted against Firoz Shah Khilji, who was then on the Dehli throne, and marched against him towards Dehli, but was defeated by him near Badaon with great slaughter. Firoz then gave Karrah to his nephew Ala-ud-din, who soon became ambitious of succeeding in his turn to the Dehli throne. He made many expeditions, and in 1292 marched to Bhilsa, whence he returned with great spoils.

Some of these he sent to Dehli, and was rewarded by being made governor of Oudh as well as Karrah. After this he got permission from Dehli to make an expedition against Chanderí, but marched instead to Deogir. In 1296 he was attacking Lakhnauti, but reported to the Sultan that he had returned to Karrah. This being discovered, he was afraid of punishment, and wrote to Dehli to say that he would either take poison or go out into the world as an

adventurer, unless the Sultan forgave him. The latter, Firoz Shah, sent messengers to stop him, and then proceeded by boat to Karrah ; here he trustfully landed in the midst of Ala-ud-din's army, and was at once basely murdered : while Ala-ud-din proceeded immediately to Dehli.

Ala-ul-mulk, who had acted for him in his absence, succeeded Ala-ud-din at Karrah, but in 1297 he was recalled to Dehli, and no more is heard of Karrah till 1330, when Muhammad Shah, son of Toghlak Shah, was reigning at Dehli, and being in want of money invented several oppressive cesses, which he enforced with such rigour in the Doáb that the land was ruined and cultivation abandoned : a great famine ensued, and thousands died of starvation.

In 1338 Nizám Má-in attempted to revolt at Karrah, but was at once put down by Ain-ul-mulk and flayed alive. During the rains of 1346 Karrah was occupied by the rebel cobbler of Gujarat, Taqhi, but Muhammad Shah followed him up from Ahmadábád and totally defeated him.

Ten years later, in 1356, Muhammad Shah's successor at Dehli, Firoz Shah, visited Karrah in his march back from Bengal, where he had been fighting Sikandar Sultan ; and thence made an expedition to Jajnagar, returning again to Karrah and marching thence to Dehli. The Doáb had now quite regained its prosperity, and all the land deserted in 1330 was again cultivated.

In 1376 the feofs of Karrah, Mahoba (in Hamírpur), and Dalamau (in Fatehpur) were all united under one governor, called the Malik-ul-Shark, and in 1394 this officer's authority was extended over all the country from Kanauj to Bahar : the feof of Karrah therefore became merged into this vast province, and henceforward it has had no separate history. This first great governor was Khwaja-i-Jahán, and he maintained order throughout his province during the invasion of India by Tamerlane and the battles of Nasrat Khan and Ikbal Khan before Dehli. In about 1529 the district was wrested from the Patháns by Bábar, and the city was re-named Allahabad (instead of the Hindu name Prág) by Akhbar, who erected the fort about 1575. In the latter years of his reign his son Salim, who was afterwards the Emperor Jahangír, was governor of Allahabad, and resided in the fort. He had two sons, the elder, Khushru (born in 1588), by a daughter of the Rája of Jaipur, and the younger, Khurram, by a princess of Jodhpur. Salim had often opposed Akhbar ; and Mán Sing, the Jaipur princess's brother, hoped to supplant him and get Khushru made heir-apparent to Akhbar : however, on the latter's death, Salim succeeded him quietly, and Khushru fled to Lahor in open rebellion. He was soon defeated and taken, but was pardoned : soon afterwards he broke into rebellion again, and was again captured. This time he was made over to

his brother Khurram, in whose custody he died in 1615, and the mausoleum in the Khushru-bâgh at Allahabad was then erected in his honour and completed in 1622.

From 1707 to 1712 Saiad Abdullah Khan was governor of Allahabad, and he joined in the conspiracy which raised Farokhsir to the Dehli throne. In 1712 Jahandar Shah sent a force against him, which, after investing him in the fort at Allahabad, was finally defeated and dispersed. From this time he held the district, till in 1721 he was defeated at Hussenpur and the government was conferred on Muhammad Khan Bangash, who at once began a campaign against the Bundelas and the Marhattas who had invaded that province. He crossed the Jumna in 1723, and attempted to expel Chatursál and Nagdeo, the Bundela chieftains, but though he at first took many forts, they at last drove him into Jaitpur, and he was only rescued by a strong force of Rohillas sent to his aid : for this he was at once removed from the governorship, which was given to Sarbuland Khan, who deputed his son Khanazád Khan to carry it on for him.

In 1735 Ajaju, a zemindar of Kora, revolted against the Oudh Government, under which Allahabad and Fatehpur then were, and invited the Marhattas to join him. He was slain, but in 1736 they entered the Doáb and completely overran it.

In 1721, when Muhammad Bangash was nominally governor, a Hindu Giridhar seized Allahabad and fortified it. The Nawáb Vazir was at Agra, and made preparations to take the field against him. He sent Haidar Kuli Khan to besiege the fort, but it could not be taken, and finally the Vazir himself, Saiad Hussen Ali, marched against it. A treaty was at last concluded by which Giridhar was made governor of Oudh, and the fort was surrendered to the Vazir.

The Marhattas retained possession of the province from 1736 till 1750, when it was sacked by the Patháns of Fatehgarh ; three years later, in 1753, it was conquered by Safdar Jang, the Vazir of Oudh, and the Oudh Vazirs held it till 1765, when the English restored it to the Emperor Shah Alam.

In 1758 Muhammad Kuli Khan, Subahdar of Allahabad, in conjunction with the Nawáb of Oudh, invaded Bengal and advanced as far as Patna, but the Nawáb of Oudh, who was behind, treacherously seized the fort of Allahabad, and Kuli Khan had to return. He was seized and put to death by the Nawáb.¹

The Shahzáda, son of Alamgír II., was then nominally Subahdar of Bengal, Bahár, and Orissa, and he agreed with Clive, who had advanced to

¹ Aitchison's Treaties, II. 1.

Patna, to withdraw across the Karamnása (into the North-Western Provinces) on receiving a small sum. Alamgír II. was murdered by his Vizier in 1760, and the Shahzáda, who had then started on another expedition to Bengal, assumed the title of Emperor Shah Álam. He made the Nawáb of Oudh, Shuja-ud-daula, in whose hands he was really a prisoner, Vizier. His army was finally defeated in January, 1761, and he went over to the English camp, where peace was concluded, and Kasim Ali, Subahdar of Bengal, agreed to pay the Emperor 24 lakhs a year for Bengal. The Emperor then marched to Dehli, and after the defeat of the Marhattas at Panipat by Ahmad Shah Abdali he was there formally proclaimed Emperor; he then returned to Allahabad, still under the power of the Nawáb of Oudh, and joined in a third expedition against Bengal, got up by the Nawáb and by Kasim Ali, the ejected Subahdar of Bengal; the allied army was defeated by the English in the battle of Buxar on 23rd October, 1764, and the Emperor joined the English: Benares and Gházipur were given to the English, and Allahabad and Korah to the Emperor, but the former were restored to the Nawáb of Oudh in 1765. Allahabad remained under the Emperor, and the latter resided there till 1771, when he went to Dehli and put himself in the hands of the Marhattas. In 1773 they compelled him to place Allahabad and Korah under them, but his Deputy appealed to the English, as the provinces had been extorted from him by force. It was considered that the Emperor had abandoned his claim to them, and the English sold them to the Nawáb of Oudh for 50 lakhs in 1774. Shah Álam remained a state prisoner in the hands of the Marhattas till 1803, when he was released by Lord Lake, and thenceforward remained under British protection till his death in 1806.

In 1771, when leaving Allahabad, Shah Álam had placed the fort in the hands of Shuja-ud-daula, the Vizier of Oudh, but when the Marhattas extorted Korah and Allahabad from him, the English took possession of the fort on the 20th March, 1772, and this was the first English occupation of Allahabad.¹ In 1775 Shuja-ud-daula died, and a new treaty confirming his son Asaf-ul-daula in possession of Allahabad and Korah was concluded: at the same time Benares, Jaunpur, and Gházipur were ceded to the English. The Nawáb had agreed in 1772 to pay £21,000 a month for each brigade of English troops maintained to aid him; in 1775 this was raised to £26,000 per brigade, and in 1781 it was agreed that all but one brigade should be withdrawn. This, however, was never carried out, and in 1786 it was agreed to commute the payment to a lump sum of £500,000 a year. In 1797 Asaf was succeeded by Sá'adat Ali, and

¹ Aitchison, II. 65.

the tribute was raised to £760,000 a year. This was always in arrears, and in 1799 negotiations for a cession of territory in lieu of the tribute began ; they continued till the treaty of Lucknow was signed on the 10th November, 1801, by which the Nawáb ceded all his territory in the Doáb, yielding a revenue of £1,352,347 a year, to the British, and the district of Allahabad passed finally into our hands, never to be lost, except for a few weeks in the mutiny of 1857.

23. *Administration.*—Allahabad is the capital of the North-Western Provinces, and the headquarters of the provincial administration. This consists of a lieutenant-governor, one chief secretary, one junior secretary, one under-secretary, and two assistant secretaries ; revenue matters are controlled by a Board of Revenue, consisting of two members, a secretary, and a junior secretary. The control of all judicial affairs is vested in a High Court, consisting of a chief justice, four puisne judges, and a registrar. It is also the headquarters of a division administered by a commissioner who has control in all revenue and police matters.

(a.) *Revenue and Criminal.*—The district staff varies from time to time, but generally consists of a magistrate and collector, one joint magistrate, 1st grade, one joint magistrate, 2nd grade, one senior assistant magistrate with full powers, two assistant magistrates, and two uncovenanted deputy magistrates. Besides these there are at present (1877) a settlement officer and three settlement deputy collectors ; a district superintendent of police and one assistant superintendent ; nine tahsildars, or sub-magistrates and sub-collectors of revenue sub-divisions ; an assistant commissioner and inspector of customs ; a cantonment magistrate ; and five honorary special magistrates with local powers. Of these the magistrate, joint magistrates, one assistant magistrate, and one deputy magistrate are magistrates of the 1st class ; one assistant magistrate, one deputy magistrate, and about half the sub-magistrates are magistrates of the 2nd class, and the remainder are magistrates of the 3rd class ; one deputy magistrate and all the sub-magistrates and special magistrates are natives, the rest are Europeans.

(b.) *Civil.*—Allahabad is the headquarters of a civil and sessions judge, who controls the administration of the subordinate courts in civil and criminal matters, but he has no other district under him.

The subordinate courts are—

One covenanted sub-judge and small cause court judge.

One uncovenanted sub-judge.

One munsif.

In 1875 the total cost to the State of the maintenance of these courts was £7,527, and the amount realized by court fees and stamps was £7,717.

The number of cases decided by each court was as follows in the same year :—

Civil judge	193
Sub-judge (covenanted) and small cause court	1,563
Ditto (uncovenanted)	881
Munisif	1,488
Magistrate	
Joint magistrate	
Assistant magistrate	5,249
Deputy magistrates	
Collector	25
Deputy collectors (covenanted)	1,122
Ditto (uncovenanted)	1,233

The average value of the property under litigation in the civil courts was £22-2-0.

(c.) *Police*.—In the year 1876 the total strength of the district regular police force was 1,000. This number consisted of 1 district superintendent, 1 assistant superintendent, 7 inspectors, 177 officers subordinate to inspectors, 34 mounted constables, and 780 foot constables. The cost of maintaining this force was £12,032. The total strength of the police of the Allahabad district is one man to every two square miles as compared with the area, and one man to every 1,397 persons as compared with the population. The cost of maintenance is equal to £4 7s. per square mile, or 2d. per head of the population.

(d.) *Jail*.—There are three places for confinement of prisoners in Allahabad besides the ordinary police and tahsili lock-ups :—

(1.) There is the great central jail at Naini, four miles east of Allahabad; this contained a daily average of 2,451 prisoners in 1875, and is supplied from all the districts in the Allahabad division. It is governed by a European superintendent, who is generally a surgeon, and who has European and native jailors and warders under him, with an establishment of 125 officials. The average cost per head was Rs. 33-6. The average outturn of labour was Rs. 5 per head. The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 9,020. The rate of mortality was 0·57 per cent. European prisoners are confined in this jail, and all native prisoners sentenced to more than five years' imprisonment and less than penal servitude for life are usually retained here, the less heinous offenders being kept in the district jails, and the gravest criminals of all being sent to the Andaman Islands.

(2.) The district jail in the station of Allahabad, just north of the railway branch to the fort. This is under charge of the junior civil surgeon, with a

jailor and 40 officials under him. The average number of prisoners was 866 in 1875, the average cost per head was Rs. 28·4, the average outturn of labour was Rs. 12 per head, and the net profit on the year's labour Rs. 1,348. The rate of mortality was 1·98 per cent.

(3.) The Magistrate's lock-up, where all prisoners under trial are confined during the enquiry into their case. This is situated opposite to the judge's and magistrate's offices, and usually contains about 50 prisoners.

(e.) *Postal and Telegraph.*—The postmaster-general's office is situated in Allahabad, and there is also a district post-office and a post-office in the Kattra quarter of the station; besides local post-offices at each of the nine tahsilis or sub-collectorates, making 11 post-offices in all. There is a Government head telegraph office near the railway station and a branch at Kattra; there are also railway telegraph offices at each of the eight stations on the main East Indian line, and at each of the two stations on the Jabbalpur branch line.

24. *Revenue and Finance.*—The district local funds amounted in 1876 to £49,613, and the expenditure to £23,918. There is only one municipality, viz., Allahabad; of this the receipts and expenditure were as follows in 1875:—

Municipality.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Incidence of taxation per head.
	£	£	Re. a. p.
Allahabad ...	21,220	21,053	1 0 4

The whole amount of revenue raised in the district, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, in 1876 was £302,875, or on a population of 1,396,241 an incidence per head of 4·3 shillings: out of this £65,407, or 21·6 per cent. of the total receipts, was returned to the district in payment for its administration.

25. *Medical Statistics.*—There are nine dispensaries, all of which have been established during the last few years, and one hospital in the district.

In Allahabad itself there are the Colvin Dispensary, erected as a memorial to Mr. Colvin, the lieutenant-governor, who died in the mutiny, the lock-hospital, the city dispensary, and the civil hospital.

During the year 1875, 46,528 persons in all were treated in these hospitals and dispensaries, of whom 45,266 were out-door and 1,262 in-door patients.

The total number of deaths in the year 1875 was 23,224, or 16·65 per 1,000 of the population. The mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 during the previous six years was 15·64.

26. *Education.*—In the year 1875 there were 450 Government schools, or on an average one school for every 7·7 inhabited villages, and for every 6·10

square miles with an average attendance of 12,533 pupils, or 89 per cent. of the entire population. Of these 450 schools 8 were girls' schools. The total cost to the State of maintaining these schools, exclusive of superior supervision, was £3,804; of this the municipality contributed £300. There is a public library in Allahabad near Trinity Church; it contains about 8,700 volumes at present, and is open to the public free; it is to be removed to the Mayne and Thornhill Memorial in the Alfred Park as soon as that building is completed. No vernacular newspaper is published in Allahabad. Of English newspapers, the *Pioneer*, the *Pioneer Mail*, and the *Allahabad Exchange Gazette* are published here. There is an Allahabad Institute for the social, moral, and intellectual improvement of the people, numbering 336 members and having an income of Rs. 433.

27.—*Fairs and Chief Towns.*—There is only one fair of great importance in the district, viz., the Magh Mela, held in the month of Magh (December, January) on the plain near the fort, just above the junction of the Ganges and the Jumna. This is one of the largest fairs in the province, and the pilgrims often number from 200,000 to 250,000 persons: the fair lasts in full vigour for about a fortnight, but pilgrims and buyers and sellers attend there for more than a month altogether. The great bathing-day is at the time of the full moon.

The chief towns of the district are—(1) Allahabad, with a population of 143,693, 21,876 houses, and a municipal income of £18,987 per annum; (2) Mau Aima, with a population of 6,189. This is in parganah Soráon.

There are 1 town with a population of over 20,000, 1 over 5,000, 10 over 3,000, 29 over 2,000, and 156 over 1,000 in the district, the remaining 3,306 inhabited places being mere villages with less than 1,000 inhabitants.

In 1865 the number of persons and houses, and proportion of persons to houses, in each parganah were as follows; there are no similar returns for later years:—

Parganah.	Number of houses.	Number of persons.	Proportion.
Chail	...	63,390	279,032
Atharban	...	10,835	41,046
Karáli	...	17,757	74,776
Karrah	...	28,068	116,115
Soráon	...	21,715	93,466
Nawábganj	...	16,201	68,666
Mirzapur Chauhári	...	4,377	19,350
Kewai	...	18,835	83,891
Meh	...	19,090	86,263
Sikandra	...	20,512	92,686
Jhusi	...	15,659	71,999
Aral	...	28,899	123,350
Bárah	...	15,641	64,698
Khairágárh	...	38,936	177,845

28. *Archæology.*—The chief objects of archæological interest in the district are :—

(1.) The fort of Allahabad, situated about a mile above the junction of the Ganges and the Jumna: there has been a fort of some kind here ever since the days of the Macedonian empire, and probably long before. The existing fort was built by the Emperor Akhbar about 1575, but all the high towers have been pulled down and the stone ramparts covered with earth and turf. In the fort is the famous monolith of Asoka; a stone pillar bearing inscriptions of Asoka, Samudra Gupta, and Jahangir; it was first erected by king Asoka about B.C. 240 to promulgate his edicts for the propagation of Buddhism. In the second century after Christ, Samudra Gupta recorded on it his conquests over the various nations of India, and finally it was re-erected by the Moghal Emperor Jahangir to commemorate his accession to the throne in 1605. Its height is 42 feet, and diameter at base 3 feet $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches, tapering to 2 feet 2 inches at top. In a grotto near the pillar is the famous “Akshai Bat” or undying banyan tree, which is now nothing but a bifurcated log fixed in the side of the crypt; it has been for many centuries an object of worship, and was first mentioned by the Chinese Hwen Tsang in the 7th century.

(2.) The Khushru-bâgh or garden opposite to the railway station at Allahabad. It was at first the pleasure ground of Salim (the son of Akhbar), who was afterwards the Emperor Jahangir: he was then (about 1588) governor of Allahabad, and his son, afterwards the Emperor Shahjahân, was born there, as well as an elder son who was named Khushru or Fair-face, and who gave his name to the garden. On Salim's succeeding Akhbar as Jahangir, Khushru rebelled, but was defeated and captured in 1605. Soon afterwards he rebelled again, and being captured was made over to his younger brother, in whose custody he died in 1615: the mausoleum in the garden was then erected in his honour; it is a large domed building like the Agra Taj, and the tomb is underground.

A. COTTERELL TUPP.

A Z A M G A R H.

AZAMGARH.

A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. *Position and area.*—The district of Azamgarh—bounded on the north by the district of Gorakhpur and the Faizábád district of Oudh, on the east by the Sárн district of Bengal and by the district of Gházipur, on the south by Gházipur and Jaunpur, and on the west by Jaunpur and the Oudh districts of Sultánpur and Faizábád—lies between north latitude $25^{\circ} 38' 30''$ and $26^{\circ} 24' 45''$ and east longitude $82^{\circ} 44' 15''$ and $84^{\circ} 10' 45''$, and contains an area of 2,565 square miles and a population of 1,531,482 persons, or 597 to the square mile.

2. *Sub-divisions.*—The district is divided into six tahsílis or sub-collectories and 16 parganas, as follows :—

Number.	Tahsíli.	Parganah.	Revenue, 1876.
			£
1	Deogáoń	1. Deogáoń	12,568
		2. Belhábans	4,503
2	Azamgarh	1. Nizámábád	40,684
		2. Mábul	21,984
3	Máhúl	2. Kauria	4,754
		3. Atraulía	9,548
4	Ságri	1. Gopálpur	3,798
		2. Ságri	16,715
		3. Ghosi	18,550
		1. Kiriat Mittu	1,778
5	Muhammadábád	2. Chíríakot	5,954
		3. Muhammadábád	26,610
		4. Maunatbhanjan	1,852
6	Sikandarpur	1. Nathúpúr	6,957
		2. Sikandarpúr	16,416
		3. Bhadáón	2,550
Total			190,116

3. *Physical geography and boundaries.*—The district is roughly of a triangular shape, the base being to the west, and the long sides the north and south boundaries, which meet at the eastern extremity of the district. The two parganahs in the apex of the triangle at the eastern point, Sikandarpur and

Bhadáon, are permanently settled, *i.e.*, the revenue they pay to Government is fixed for ever, and not for a period of settlement; the rest of the district is temporarily settled, and the new settlement for thirty years is just finished (1877). The average height of the district above the sea level is 255 feet: it is bounded throughout its northern limit by the great river Sarju or Ghágra, which separates it from the district of Gorakhpur, and the whole district is part of the Gangetic plain. The general level of its surface is broken only by the deep-cut streams, nálás, and ravines that carry off the natural drainage. Except close to the river Ghágra, the country slopes gently towards the south-east, and the main channels of drainage run east and south-east; near the Ghágra the land slopes northward into that river.

The whole tract may be divided into two main sections: the southern is bángar or up-lying land of the ordinary type found in the plain of the Ganges: the northern is partly bángar and partly kachhár, or new alluvial land formed by the present rivers since they have taken their present courses and dimensions.

The bángar of the north differs from that of the south in the character of the prevailing soil and other superficial features; but both are of the same geological formation, while the kachhár is much newer, and is only found in the valleys of the Choti Sarjú and the Ghágra.

The line of separation between the northern and southern portions is not very distinctly marked, but it runs at from one to five miles south of the Kunwar nádi, and then of the Tons river, after the former joins the latter. The area of the south portion is about 925 square miles, and of the north 1,640 square miles.

The south portion is a series of narrow parallel sections of country which lie longitudinally west and east. They are divided from each other by lines of swamp, and further east by nálás or deep channels. In the west the country is during the rains a large shallow lake; as the outlets become deeper towards the east, the country is much more rapidly drained, but even here extensive marshy tracts are not wanting. These are dry, or nearly dry, in the hot season, but in the rains they spread over considerable areas; the land around them is chiefly cultivated with rice.

Even in the upper portions of the drainage basins part of the country is fairly well raised: hamlets are generally planted on the higher spots, and between these are tracts of cultivated land on which the ordinary spring and autumn crops of the country are raised, and about which trees and groves are scattered. These cultivated lands never extend very far in an unbroken expanse; they

either run into low ground or are broken up by waste tracts of úsar soil: in both these there are no trees, and in the dry season they appear very bare and desolate. In the lower parts of the drainage basins towards the east, where the channels have cut deep into the surface, the marsh and rice lands are not so extensive, the tracts covered by spring and autumn crops are more continuous, hamlets are more numerous and nearer to each other, and the country is better wooded.

The northern portion of the district is divided into two parts—(1) the bángar or up-land, which only differs superficially from the southern up-land, and is the old alluvial deposit; and (2) the kachhár or khadir, or new alluvial formed by the rivers as they now exist. The former occupies the whole of the west side of the northern portion of the district, and all except the northern margin of the centre of it; it contains 960 square miles, of which 61½ per cent. is cultivated. A stretch of kachhár country from 3 to 5 miles in breadth then cuts off the north-east corner of the bángar tract from the rest. The detached piece contains most of parganahs Ghosí and Náthupur and a bit of parganah Muhammadábád. The main tract of northern up-land, which abuts throughout its breadth on the southern division, contains all parganahs Atraulia and Kauria and parts of parganahs Málúl, Nizámábád, Muhammadábád, Mau, Nathbhanjan, Sagri, and Gopálpur. The northern part of the district is not divided into sections by the rivers as the southern portion is, but the country in the neighbourhood of the larger drainage channels (the Kunwar, Majhui, Tons, Silhani, and Kayar) is much cut up by ravines: only the Tons really deserves the name of a river, and it has a most tortuous course, often doubling back on itself and enclosing a tongue of land like that on which the town and station of Azamgarh are situated. There are úsar plains in this portion of the district as well as in the south, but the expanses of general cultivation are much more extensive; the blanks in the cultivation are smaller, and the country is studded with hamlets and well wooded with mango groves.

The kachhár or new alluvium consists of two portions—(1) the kachhár of the Choti Sarjú in parganahs Gopálpur, Sagri, Muhammadábád, and Mau Nathbhanjan, and (2) the kachhár of the Ghágra along that river in parganahs Ghosí and Náthupur. In both cases the passage from the up-land (old alluvium) to the low-land (new alluvium) is generally marked by a cliff of some height and abruptness. Reh and kankar are hardly ever found in the fluviatile deposits of the kachhár, but it is less fertile and less prosperous than the bángar or up-land. In the better raised parts the general aspect is much like that of the up-land; but in the parts liable to inundation, or where the soil is sandy, the ham-

lets are scattered and poor, the tracts of waste are extensive, and there are downs of light sandy soil which bear but very poor crops.

4. *Rivers.*—The chief rivers and drainage channels in the northern portion of the district are—(1) the Kunwar, (2) the Ungri, (3) the Majhui, (4) the Tons, (5) the Silhani, (6) the Saksui, (7) the Kayár, (8) the Choti Sarjú, (9) the Pharei, and (10) the Basnei. Those in the southern are—(1) the Mangai, (2) the Gangi, and (3) the Besu or Udanti.

The Choti Sarjú rises in the Faizábád district and traverses the north-western corner of Azamgarh. The Pharei and Basnei form within the Azamgarh district, and drain part of the north-eastern corner of it. All three of these run into the Ghágra—the Basnei a long way east of the Azamgarh border, the others within it. The Tons is the chief of the remaining streams; it rises in the west of the Faizábád district, and all the remaining streams are affluents of it, and join it before it leaves the district; six or eight miles from the east boundary it opens into the kachhár country, and joins the Choti Sarjú, which is here not so big as the Tons.

The Ghágra is known also as the Great Sarjú, and as the Deoha or Dehwa: its valley varies in breadth in this district from two-fifths of a mile to ten miles.

The channel is hardly anywhere persistent, but moves about from place to place as it succeeds in cutting away the soft sandy deposits which it has itself formed. When in flood an enormous volume of water passes down the Ghágra, and there are then generally minor channels which carry off a good deal of the stream.

The area within which the river oscillates is from 2 to 4 miles in breadth, and it has been proved impossible to turn it when it once persists in adopting a new course. The Ghágra generally deposits sand, but occasionally clay silt, and the sediment left by it almost always does harm.

The Ghágra passes the western boundary of the district in long. $83^{\circ} 17'$, and runs for 72 miles along its northern border, dividing it throughout from Gorakhpur till the last 8 miles, when the Sáran district of Bengal becomes its northern neighbour. Its course is due west for the first 48 miles, and then south-west, till it leaves the district in long. $84^{\circ} 12'$.

The Tons rises near Faizábád and flows parallel with the Ghágra till it enters the district six miles north-east of Málhúl: it is soon after joined by the Majhui near Shamshábád, and flows thence in a very tortuous course for about 35 miles south-east to the station of Azamgarh: it then runs north-east for eight miles to Birman, and thence south-east for 30 miles past Muhammádábád

to a point six miles south-east of Mau, where it leaves the district in long. 83° 45'.

The Mangai rises near Pukh in parganah Máhúl, and flows about 36 miles south-east throughout parganahs Nizámabad and Kiriát Mittu, and afterwards between parganahs Chiriakot and Belhabans, till it leaves the district four miles south of Chiriakot.

5. *Lakes.*—In the southern portion of the district there are many depressions of the surface of greater or less depth and extent : these are full of water in the rains and cold weather, and the surplus water from them finds its way into one or other of the main drainage channels of the district. But the only real lakes, are those which retain water throughout the year, and these are—(1) the Kotail, (2) the Jamwáwan, and (3) the Gumadíh lakes in tahsil Deogáoñ ; (4) the Kumbh lake on the borders of parganahs Máhúl and Deogáoñ, (5) the Pukh lake in parganah Máhúl, (6) the Asauna lake in parganah Muhammadábád, and the largest of all, (7) the Gumihrban lake, in parganah Nizámábád, and even in these the water sometimes dries up in seasons of great drought.

In the northern portion of the district the swamps are not so extensive as in the southern, and the lakes are not so numerous or large. The following are the chief—(1) the Koila and Kasila-Garsila lakes in parganah Máhúl; (2) the Keili and Duhia Birna lakes in parganah Atraulia ; (3) the Árá lake on the borders of parganahs Kauria and Atraulia ; (4) the Telhuán lake on the borders of parganahs Kauria and Nizámábád, and the Manchhil lake in parganah Ghosi. There is also a long chain of swamps in parganah Ságri which spread out in places into shallow lakes.

In the Kachhár of the northern portion there are three great lakes—(1) the Salona Tál in parganah Ságri, (2) the Pakri-Pewa Tál in parganah Ghosi, and (3) the Narja Tál in parganah Muhammadábád. The Ghágra probably hollowed the depressions in which these lakes now exist, and they had at one time full communication with that river : at the present each is connected only by a small canal which may be artificial. The Pakri-Pewa is the largest and deepest, but none of them ever dry up. Rice is cultivated round their edges, and they abound in fish and wild fowl : in the Pakri-Pewa there are floating masses of vegetation called “lads,” which will support a person walking on them.

In the middle of parganah Náthupur is the large Ratoe Tál, which resembles the above lakes, and is connected with the Ghágra by an outlet to the eastward called the Háká. When for three or four years previous to 1872 the Ghágra cut away a good deal of the high land on its edge, three or four rapid streams flowed into the Ratoe Tál, while the deeper parts of the lake became

shallower from the deposits of silt thrown down by the current, and a large area on the northern and western sides was covered with sand and raised above the ordinary flood level.

6. *Forests and waste lands.*—The waste tracts in this district are on a comparatively high level, and consist chiefly of those parts where reh effloresces on the surface of the soil during the hot months. In some places the ground is white, as if covered with snow, in others there is a puffy crust of brownish dust. In many places the reh does not coat the surface of the ground, but the soil is evidently more or less infected with it, while in a few places the unculturability of the soil is clearly due to other causes than reh. Nearly all the land in the waste tracts is unculturable, but small patches of culturable land occur here and there, too far off from villages or too far separated from each other to be worth cultivating. Even úsar or reh land is not irreclaimably barren : much of the rice land at present cultivated was probably little, if at all, better at one time ; as long as this land is flooded the reh salts sink down and do not poison the crop, but when the water is drained off the reh again rises to the surface. Reh land can be reclaimed by trenching it with parallel ditches, and throwing up the earth so obtained around it ; this keeps in rain-water, and keeps out the surface drainage which is tainted with reh, and the quality of the soil gradually improves till it will grow rice at any rate. The strata containing reh only extend a few feet under ground, and if they be dug out and fresh good earth put in no trace of reh remains. In the north of the district the raviny land along the Tons and other rivers forms a large proportion of the waste, and much of this is still covered with woods of dhâk, sihor, &c.

7. *Geology.*—The whole of the district is alluvial, and probably of marine estuary origin : it is divided into the upper or bângar lands and the lower or khadir or kachhár lands ; the former formed when the rivers and estuaries were very different from what they are now, and the latter deposited by the rivers in their present beds. The subsoil strata in the bângar lands vary a good deal in character, thickness, and vertical arrangement : there are, first, the reh-bearing strata, next the beds of grey and brown sand, of grey-black and yellow clay, and of earths intermediate between these. In some places large beds of kankar occur in the form of solid sheets of coherent rock, and these sometimes extend over considerable areas. The nature of the subsoil of course affects the soil above it, and in the case of these reefs of kankar the soil above them is excessively parched and soaked in the hot season and rains respectively.

There are also beds which yield a copious and unfailing supply of water. In the up-lands water is met with at from 12 to 20 feet below the surface, and it

is most frequently found in clay beds which are intermixed with kankar : these lie below the ordinary water-level, sometimes only slightly so, and sometimes at such great depths that it is very difficult to reach them : almost always some beds of sand or light earth must be traversed, and this necessitates lining the wells with masonry to prevent their falling in, particularly in the rainy season.

8. *Climate.*—Natives consider the climate healthy, but there is sometimes a great deal of fever in the south of the district. Epidemic disease is rare, and there are no constitutional affections produced by the climate itself. The lower castes are often ill-looking and emaciated ; but this is the result of poverty, not of climate.

The rains begin in the third week of June and end in the beginning of October : the first burst of them sometimes comes from the north-east, sometimes from the north-west : the falls are heavy but intermittent, and there is little continuous soaking wet. A break then generally occurs with westerly winds, and after that the regular rains set in with a steady easterly wind, though west winds often prevail again in August. During the rains the temperature varies from 75° to 95° in the shade. The cool season begins about the middle of October and continues till the middle of March, but only December and January are really cold. The wind in this season is generally from the west, but occasionally easterly, and then rain often accompanies it. There are occasionally general and severe frosts which do much harm to the arhar and pea crops. In 1819 all the spring crops (barley, wheat, &c.) were destroyed by frost, and a serious scarcity ensued. In February and March the wind is westerly, storms occasionally occur, and hail now and then injures the crops. A great hailstorm occurred in February, 1818, which utterly destroyed the crops in the part of the district which it traversed.

The hot season lasts throughout April, May, and most of June. The thermometer then ranges from 70° to 110° in the shade ; westerly winds blow steadily till the middle of May, when easterly winds come in and the climate becomes very relaxing.

The average rainfall for the 17 years from 1859 to 1875 was 37 3 inches ; the maximum was 57·1 inches in 1871, and the minimum was 20·8 inches in 1859. For the last 100 years there has been no drought such as to produce a real famine and cause the people to die or abandon their abodes.

9. *Minerals and trees.*—Reh deposits exist in patches all over the district, but in parganah Mâhul, and particularly in tappah Didârganj, considerable deposits of chloride of sodium occur, and the manufacture of saltpetre is prohibited

in parganahs Máhul, Kauría, and Atraulia in consequence of the prevalence of salt in various localities. Kankar in large or small beds and in large nodules or small pieces occurs in all the stiffer clay-beds, and is used for making lime and for metalling roads. It is found throughout the bángar or up-lands; sometimes, instead of being nodular, it is in solid sheets of coherent rock varying in thickness from a few inches to a foot and a half. These kankar rocks are generally near the surface, and are found in depressed tracts liable to being flooded with water. This rock kankar was formerly used for building, particularly in foundations, but is not in use now: it has evidently been generated in the beds by chemical action after they were laid down.

The trees do not differ in any essential particulars from those of the neighbouring districts. Large groves of mango are common, except in the low country, and mahuá shisham, nim, pipal, bargad, gular, amaltas, bakain, kachnár, jáman, imli, and sirsa are all found about the villages and fields, and dhák and babúl in the ravines and waste lands.

10. *Animals and birds.*—Nearly all the domestic animals generally used in Upper India are found in this district, but camels are not common, and are not well adapted to its moist marshy soil. The cattle are chiefly from Faizábád and the trans-Gogra districts; their price varies from £3 to £10. Of wild animals, the wild boar, the wolf, the hare, the wild cat, the jackal, and the fox are the commonest; nilgæ are not abundant, and antelope unknown.

The enormous swamps and jhils are the homes and breeding places of innumerable waterfowl of every species: some dwell in them all the year round, others resort to them with the return of the cold season in October, and leave them again in March or April, when the heat again becomes oppressive. These latter are believed to breed in Thibet and Tartary, north of the Himalayas: among them are found the rain teal, the blue-winged teal, the mallard, the shoveller, the cotton teal, the common brown duck, the pintail, the grey goose and the brown goose, while the whistling teal and the bean-goose breed and live in the district.

Of other birds, the partridge, the plover, the quail, and the curlew are common and peafowl are found. Of fish, the rahu, the bachua, and the anwári (or mullet) are most frequently met with and form a staple article of food.

Population.—The total population of the district in 1853 was 1,653,251, but this had decreased in 1865 to 1,385,872, or 17 per cent. This large decrease was attributed by the then Collector to the large number of persons

killed in the mutiny of 1857, and to the deaths from disease and want which occurred afterwards ; but Mr. Plowden in his census report shows that this is a mistake, as districts in which the results of the mutiny were far more widely felt actually increased in population in the same time. The decrease was much greater among the females than among the males, which is the reverse of what would have happened had the result been attributable to the mutiny. The figures are—

Year.		Males.	Females.	Total.
1853	885,134	768,117	1,653,251
1865	752,500	638,372	1,385,872
Actual decrease	132,634	134,745	267,379
Decrease per cent.	...	14.98	17.54	16.17

Census of 1865.—In 1865 Azamgarh had 6,276 mauzahs or villages, was 2,545.07 square miles (statute) and 1,628,849 acres in extent, of which 811,931 were cultivated and 218,800 culturable (all these being assessed), while 36,054 were exempted and 562,064 barren (these two being unassessed).

The land revenue was Rs. 14,90,445, which falls on the total area at the rate of Re. 0-14-8 per acre, on the assessed area at the rate of Re. 1-7-2, and on the area actually cultivated at the rate of Re. 1-13-4. The population being 1,385,872, the land revenue was at the rate of Re. 1-1-2 per head. As regards caste, the population was divided as follows, those numbering above 5,000 being mentioned by name:—

Brahmans	...	Kanaujia	78,586
		Gaur	17,775
		Others	5,199
				Total	<u>101,560</u>
Kshatriyas	...	Ragbansi	30,493
		Bais	22,755
		Gautam	8,394
		Chandel	6,952
		Horia	5,726
		Bhuinhar	47,926
		Senghar	5,639
		Drigbansi	12,489
		Palwár	18,491
		Damwár	8,179
		Others	9,436
				Total	<u>171,480</u>

Vaisyas	...	Baruwar	6,293
		Others	8,479
						<u>14,772¹</u>
Sudras (above 10,000),		Kayaths	15,716
		Abirs	210,868
		Telis	23,618
		Lohárs	23,738
		Náis	15,050
		Kumhár	23,607
		Kahár	44,522
		Kurmi	27,889
		Kalár	19,867
		Murai	68,406
		Bhár	69,781
		Pási	12,789
		Chamárs	195,419
		Lunias	46,818
		Khewats	16,016
		Kandu	28,823
		Others	74,633
						<u>917,060¹</u>
Shékhhs	41,250
Saiads	5,888
Mughals	953
Patháns	24,736
Others	108,368
						<u>181,175</u>
Christians	<u>55</u>

So that the numbers of the great divisions are—

Hindás	...	Brahmans Kshatriyas Vaisyas Sudras	99,352
			171,480
			12,039
			921,771
Musalmáns	181,175
Christians	55
						<u>1,385,872</u>

¹Some are reckoned twice over in different divisions.

As regards occupations, the six classes were numbered as follows :—

1. Professional	7,054
2. Domestic	87,459
3. Commercial	24,582
4. Agricultural	920,680
5. Industrial	181,164
6. Indefinite and non-productive	164,926
			Total	...	1,385,872

There were 297,068 houses, or 4·66 persons to each house in the district in 1865.

The four towns which exceed 5,000 with their population are :—

	Population.		Parganah.
	1865.	1872.	
Azamgarh	...	14,543	Nizamábád.
Man	...	10,271	Maunatbhánján.
Kopaganj	...	6,086	Muhammadábád.
Mubarakpur	...	5,440	Ditto.
Dubari	Náthúpur.
Fur Tallukah Púr	Sikandarpur.

The population of the district was classified as follows in 1865 :—

Hindús	...	Agricultural	...	Males	...	Adult	...	276,744
					Children	...	175,922	
		Non-agricultural,		Females	...	Adult	...	258,714
					Children	...	109,077	
		Agricultural	...	Males	...	Adult	...	180,477
					Children	...	73,595	
		Non-agricultural,		Females	...	Adult	...	127,553
					Children	...	52,610	
								1,204,692
Non-Hindús,	...	Agricultural	...	Males	...	Adult	...	24,909
					Children	...	18,892	
		Non-agricultural,		Females	...	Adult	...	24,934
					Children	...	11,857	
		Agricultural	...	Males	...	Adult	...	32,019
					Children	...	19,942	
		Non-agricultural,		Females	...	Adult	...	32,486
					Children	...	16,141	
								181,180
				Grand Total		1,385,872

The number of persons to each square British mile was 545.

The decrease in population from 1853 to 1865 was 16·17 on the whole population, 14·98 on the males and 17·54 on the females. In 1865 there were 84·16 females to every 100 males, while in 1853 there were 86·77 females.

Census of 1872.—In the census of 1872 the number of enclosures was estimated at 280,728, the number of houses being 314,327 (of which 313,881 were built with unskilled labour and only 496 with skilled labour), or an increase of 17,259 on the census of 1865.

In 1872 the total population was 1,531,410, or 145,538 more than in 1865, but 121,841 less than in 1853. This would seem to show that the 1853 census was an over-estimate, as the population must have increased in the twenty years from 1853 to 1872. Of these 1,531,410 there were 826,145 males and 705,265 females, who were classified as to religion as follows:—

	722,415 males	} Hindús.
	611,390 females	
1,333,805	—	103,717 males	} Muhammadans.
		93,864 females	
197,581	—	13 males	} Christians, &c.
		11 females	
24	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1,531,410							

As regards occupation, there were 185,423 landowners, 788,301 agriculturists, and 537,686 non-agriculturists. Of the males, 16,922 were able to read and write, or 1·11 per cent., and of the females only 8; but this, as in other districts, is not to be trusted.

The numbers per square mile were therefore 597 (of whom 322 were males and 275 females), as against 545 in 1865, a considerable increase, which is corroborated by the increase of cultivated area, which rose from 49·8 to 53·3 per cent. of the whole area in the same interval, 1,368 square miles being cultivated out of 2,565, as against 1,268 out of 2,545.

There were 10 Musalmáns to 68 Hindús in 1872, the percentage of Musalmáns being 12·9 in 1872 and 13·1 in 1865, the difference being very possibly due to the slower rate of increase among the Musalmáns.

The total agricultural population was 973,724, or 63·6 per cent. of the whole, and of this 581·1 per cent. was Hindú, and 5·5 per cent. Musalmán. Out of the male population above fifteen years old, 659,676 were agriculturists and labourers, i.e., 80 per cent. As regards age, there were among the Hindú males 33·0 per cent. under twelve, among the Hindú females 35·1: among the

Musalmán males 28·4, and among the Musalmán females 30·3. In 1872, 69·3 per cent. of the total area was cultivated.

The proportions of the great castes were—

8·2	Brahmans.
11·6	Rájputs.
3·2	Banias.
77·1	Others.
<hr/> 100·0	

In 1865 there were 5·12 persons per enclosure and 4·66 per house : in 1872 there were 5 per enclosure and 4·8 per house.

In 1872 the castes which numbered over 5,000 persons were—

Brahmans	... {	Kanaujia	...	18,812
		Sarwariya	...	8,902
		Others	...	82,113
		Total	...	<hr/> 109,827
Thákúrs	... {	Bais	...	31,177
		Bharadwaj	...	7,151
		Bhuinhar	...	12,741
		Chandel	...	5,182
		Gautam	...	7,938
		Ponwar	...	13,451
		Others	...	76,174
		Total	...	<hr/> 153,814
Banias	... {	Kanda	...	31,609
		Others	...	10,927
		Total	...	<hr/> 42,536

The total number of villages in the district was 4,326 in 1865 and 5,071 in 1872. Of these the following numbers had the populations mentioned in the first column :—

			1865.	1872.	Difference.
Under 200	2,156	2,730	+ 574
200 to 500	1,469	1,543	+ 74
500 to 1,000	511	581	+ 70
1,000 to 2,000	153	176	+ 23
2,000 to 5,000	33	35	+ 2
5,000 to 10,000	2	4	+ 2
10,000 to 50,000	2	2	...
Total	...		4,326	5,071	+ 745

There are now 2 roods and 13 poles of cultivated land to each person. The south division of the district contains 525,569 persons, or 565 to the square mile.

The northern portion contains—

(1) in the up-lands or bángar 705,414, or 739 persons to the square mile;

(2) in the low-lands or kachár 86,571, or 330 to the square mile.

The average density of the rural population is nearly 700 to the square mile.

The details of caste of the Hindú population are these :¹

Brahmans	92,752 or 7·05 per cent. of population.
Bhuinhárs	41,748 or 3·17 ditto ditto.
Kshatriyas	113,087 or 8·59 ditto ditto.
<hr/>				<hr/>	
Total of high-caste Hindús	247,587 or 18·81	ditto ditto.
<hr/>				<hr/>	
Banias	36,43 or 3·16	ditto ditto.
Agricultural low-caste Hindús	621,406 or 47·25	ditto ditto.
Other Hindús (writers, artizans, &c.)	224,566 or 17·12	ditto ditto.

The Bhuinhárs are a peculiarity in the district : they are most numerous in parganahs Deogaon, Nizámabad, Máhúl, Ságri, Ghosi, and Muhammadabad ; they claim to be Brahmans, but are very vague as to their origin and descent. Other castes say that they are of mixed Brahman and Kshatri descent, though some look on them as pure Kshatri or Thákurs.

14. *Town and village population.*—There are eight towns under Act XX. of 1856, of which the population is as follows :—

Tahsíl.	Parganah.	Town.	Population.
Azamgarh	Nizámabad	Azamgarh	20,623
Máhúl	Máhúl	Máhúl	1,902
Ságri	Atraulia	Atraulia	2,509
	Gopálpur	Mahárájganj	2,068
Muhammadabad	Ghosi	Kopa	1,901
"	Chiriakot	Chiriakot	2,092
"	Muhammadabad	Muhammadabad	25,418
"	Mau Nathbhanjan	Mubárapur	11,702
		Mau	

In the four towns of Azamgarh, Mau, Mubárapur, and Kopa there are 8,366 enclosures and 47,042 inhabitants : the rest of the enclosures (233,982) are grouped into between 18,000 and 19,000 villages, containing altogether 1,270,512

¹ Reid's Azamgarh Settlement Report.

inhabitants. The average number of villages to the square mile is 8 or 9; the average size of a village is 12 or 13 enclosures, though they vary from 3 or 4 to 1,000; and the average population 50 persons.

The hamlets are fewest in number and furthest apart in the kachár or low country, and most numerous in the northern portion of the bángar or up-land. The uniform diffusion of the inhabitants over the surface of the district is due in part to the custom of some low castes living apart, but chiefly to the fact of the immense majority of the population being agricultural and to the minute subdivision of the land.

Most houses are built, not even of sun-dried bricks, but of layers of mud a foot and a half thick, and added one on the other as the former dries. The labourers employed on these get $2\frac{1}{2}$ annas a day wages. The houses of the land-holders, traders, writers, artizans, and Brahman, Bhuinhar, and Rájput cultivators are generally tiled, even in the villages, and those of all classes in the towns: in the towns they also have doors: the tiles are placed on a framework of wood and bambu, and a layer of grass is placed under them to mitigate the heat.

15. *Value of house and furniture.*—There were 496 pakka houses (built of masonry) and 313,831 kacha (mud) houses, or in all 314,327 houses, which gives 4·8 persons per house and 122 houses per square mile.

The cost of building a house of the best class may be considered to be from £200 upwards, of the second class from £15 to £150, and of the third class from £1 to £10.

A trader's house of the better class contains generally about £50 worth of furniture and utensils of all kinds. Bedsteads, mattresses, quilts, carpets, and boxes would represent about £30 worth of this, and cooking vessels the remainder.

A well-to-do cultivator owns a few strong boxes, bedsteads, and quilts, worth about £10, besides cooking vessels worth £5 or £6.

An artizan in middling circumstances possesses one or two mattresses, bedsteads, and quilts, and some drinking and cooking vessels, worth altogether about £3.

A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars, one or two quilts, and perhaps a mattress, worth in all 10 shillings to a pound.

16. *Trades-unions.*—There are no organized trades-unions in the English sense, but the caste panchayats often perform nearly the same function. The cultivators, particularly Kurmis, occasionally league together to resist the enhancement of their rents, and when they do this they subscribe at so much per plough or per field to a general defence fund. Baniahs, goldsmiths, cloth merchants, and others have guilds which regulate their trade customs to a great extent.

17. *Village communities.*—The villages in this district, as in nearly all in the North-West, may be classified into three kinds, according to the modes in which the land is held and the Government revenue paid :—

Zamindari.—Where the whole of the land belongs to several owners in joint occupation, one (or more) of the owners is usually selected by the rest to manage the estate and to collect the Government revenue and pay it in to Government. In these villages there are no pattiis or separate shares of land marked off from the rest, but each proprietor owns a defined proportion of the total produce of the estate.

Imperfect pattidari.—Where the village is partly held by several owners in joint occupation and partly by several owners in severalty or separate occupation. Here the tenure is partly of the first class and partly of the third class, and each portion is managed as if it were a separate estate belonging to that class.

Pattidari.—Where the land has been completely divided among the sharers, and is held by several owners in severalty, but under one tenure as regards the Government. Here the lands and homesteads are entirely divided off to each owner, but the whole estate remains liable for the Government revenue or any part of it.

There is also a fourth kind of mahál or estate called bhaiachára, where, though it belongs to the second or third class, the rights and interest of each co-sharer are not determined by his ancestral share, but by custom or possession. In all these classes of estates the settlement of the revenue to be paid to Government is a joint settlement, i.e., all the co-sharers are responsible for the fulfilment of the contract, and all the co-sharers, jointly and severally, and the entire mahál are responsible for the whole of the revenue.

The cultivated land may be divided into three classes—

- (1.) The sir land or home farm kept by the owner for his own cultivation.
- (2.) The land held by tenants-at-will on terminable leases.
- (3.) The land held by tenants with rights of occupancy.

The last are generally old proprietors or relatives or dependants of old proprietors, and their privileges can be acquired by inheritance only.

The governing body of landowners is generally composed of Brahmans, Thakurs, Bhuihnárs or Ahirs; the well-to-do peasants are generally Kurmis, Káchis, Lodhs, &c., and with them may be placed the traders, such as baniahs, goldsmiths, tailors, &c., and the patwári or village accountant. Lastly come the low-caste men, labourers and servants, Chamárs, Pásis, Doms, Arakhs, &c.

18. *Condition of the people.*—Among the Hindús of the district (if the classification adopted in the Bombay Gazetteer be accepted) the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the 1st class, or having incomes over £100 a year, £96 to £180; (2) for those in the 2nd class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 a year, about £24 to £60; and (3) for those in the 3rd class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns it would be rather more, as their habits are somewhat more expensive. The mass of the population in this district is of the very poorest agricultural type, living from hand to mouth on the produce of their day's earnings, and starving for the time if they fail to obtain work. From the comparative healthiness of its climate and its immunity from severe famines, the district has become over-populated, and the standard of subsistence—not to say comfort—among the population is very low.

19. *Character of the soil.*—In the temporarily settled parganahs the amounts of cultivated and waste land are as follows :—

Cultivated	767,063	acres.
Culturable waste	285,643	"
Barren waste	...	—	371,568	"
Total	...						1,374,269	acres.

The same details are not given for the permanently settled parganahs. In the former 52·82 per cent. of the area is under cultivation, 17·14 is culturable waste, and 27·04 is land not fit for cultivation, or occupied by roads, towns, &c.

The prevailing soils in the south of the district are of an argillaceous nature, but in some of the better drained tracts sandy soil appears in considerable proportions. The clay soil is of the following varieties :—

- (1) clean-grey or blueish-grey clay, called matiárá, and containing but little organic matter;
- (2) the black soil called karail, containing more organic matter;
- (3) the whitish or yellowish-grey soil called kabsa, in which there is a good deal of saline matter consisting of salts of sodium and iron.

The distribution of these varieties of soil is not very regular, but the last is generally found on the confines of the raised waste tracts; the second occurs in the deeper and more central portions of the depressed rice tracts. Round the hamlets the stiff clay soil has become a loam from the constant and long-continued admixture of manure.

The clay soils, as in other places, take in moisture slowly, but when softened are plastic, and when saturated sticky : they yield up moisture slowly, and shrink and crack as they become dry. Karail is the most sticky and shrinks most ; matiárá is the most plastic ; while kabsa is softened more easily, dries sooner, and cracks less than the other two. Kabsa is much less fertile than matiárá or karail.¹

Reh or saline efflorescence often infects the soil or covers it in the higher tracts : in the first case the soil is almost unculturable, in the second it is very unfertile.

In the northern part of the district clay soils are tolerably abundant, but the prevailing soil is a mixture of clay and sand, in which the latter predominates : it is sometimes very light, and is then known as balui.

20. *Course of tillage.*—The success of the agriculturists' operations depends almost as much on the seasonable distribution of the rainfall over certain periods as on its gross amount. They reckon 27 nakshatras or periods in the rainy season from 22nd May to the 2nd November, the earliest and latest dates on which rain is known to fall. If the rain is delayed beyond the 20th June it keeps back the sowing, and endangers the yield of the early autumn crops which ripen in September. If the rains end prematurely the transplanted rice, which is harvested in the third week in November, is seriously injured.

Continuous heavy rain in the latter half of July is deprecated, as it interferes with the growth of the young sugarcane and the weeding of the autumn crops ; but it is good for the transplanted rice. During the whole of August heavy rain is expected and desired, but in September the crops require more sunshine than rain. The early autumn crops are then harvested, the ploughing of the land for the spring crops commences, and if one more heavy fall of rain occurs at the end of September it does immense good ; but intermissions in the rainfall are always necessary to enable the husbandman to tend his sugarcane and to plant out and secure his rice, and to plough the fields which he has kept fallow for the spring crops. During the second and third weeks of October the sowing of the spring crops goes on uninterruptedly : a fall of rain after this is liable to injure these sowings, but benefits the sugarcane.

Rain in December and January, if followed at once by sunshine, is believed to double the spring crops, and then fine bright weather is required till they are reaped in March and April. In the hot weather the only crops on the ground are sugarcane and indigo, and no rain is required for these.

21. *Years of scarcity.*—For the last hundred years no such drought has been known in the district as to cause deaths by starvation or to force the

¹J. R. Reid's Settlement Report on Azamgarh district.

people to leave their homes. In the year 1782-83 the scarcity was sufficiently severe to cause it to be remembered even now, and in the large town of Mau deaths from starvation occurred. At the time Mirzá Atá Beg was chakladár, and he constructed as the first famine relief works a mosque and some wells in the town of Kopá; but no considerable number of deaths occurred, and wheat never sold at less than 14 seers for the rupee.

In 1837-38 there was again a scarcity, but no deaths, and wheat sold at 20 seers for the rupee. Since then there have been other scarcities, as when in October, 1869, wheat sold at 11 seers for the rupee, but no famines. The rainfall never fails entirely, and there has always been enough during this century to give the people part of their autumn harvest, to keep some of the sugarcane alive, and to allow most of the lands used for spring crops to be got ready for sowing.¹

In 1873 the winter rice crop was utterly lost from want of rain in September and October, but the autumn crop was good, and the spring harvest was exceptionally productive.

Though total droughts are unknown, partial ones are common, and affect the district severely, from the fact that one-fourth of the whole cultivated area is occupied by transplanted rice, which requires constant and copious irrigation: partial droughts occurred in 1859-60, 1864-65, 1865-66, 1868-69, and 1873-74, and floods in 1871-72.

22. *Communication and trade.*—The chief lines of communication which lead from Azamgarh to other districts are—(1) the Ghágra river, (2) the metalled roads which lead from the station of Azamgarh to Jaunpur and Gházipur on one side and to Gorakhpur via Dohrighát on the other, and (3) the metalled road from Dohrighát direct to Gházipur, (4) the raised and bridged road from Azamgarh to Faizábad via Atraulia.

(1.) The Ghágra is a highway both west and east for the carriage of food-grains, salt, tobacco, &c., into the district. There was an export trade in sugar to Calcutta by means of it, but this has died away; however, a considerable trade with Patna still exists. To the west there is an import trade in grain from the trans-Ghágra districts Gorakhpur, Basti, Faizábad, &c.; there is also a small export trade in sugar.

(2.) The road from Dohrighát through Azamgarh to Jaunpur, bridged and metalled, and conveying all the through traffic from Gorakhpur to Jaunpur and Allahabad and Mirzapur: this has now become a great feeder of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway.

¹Reid, Azamgarh.

(3.) The road from Faizábad through Azamgarh to Gházipur, bridged and metalled (from Azamgarh eastwards), and conveying the traffic from Oudh eastwards to Benares, Gházipur, and Patna : this is a main feeder of the East Indian Railway.

(4.) The road from Dohrighát on the Ghágira through Ghosi and Mau to Gházipur : this is bridged and metalled, and conveys all the direct traffic from the north to Gházipur and the east. Much of the merchandise which passes over them is transferred to or from the railways, and they are the main passages in and out of the district for the sugar exports to the south and west, for the indigo and other exports to the east, and for the imports of raw cotton, cloth, and metal, and other manufactured wares. The connection of these roads with the railways has given a great impulse to the traffic on them ; and if a light railway should be made from the Oudh and Rohilkhand line through Azamgarh and Dohrighát to Gorakhpur, the district would be much benefited by it.

(5.) There is another metalled road, *viz.*, from Azamgarh to Benares : this leaves the Jaunpur road at 13 miles south of Azamgarh, and runs due south through Deogaon to Benares. This takes only the local trade with Benares, as the through traffic east and west goes through Gházipur and Jaunpur.

There is a network of unmetalled roads all over the district which carries the local traffic (chiefly by packloads on bullocks, buffaloes, ponies, and men), and by which the imports are distributed and the exports collected.

In and after the rains some streams, such as the Tons, the Kunwar, the Majhui, and the Choti Sarjú of the east kachhár country, are navigable and convey goods to a limited extent : stone sugar-presses are brought from Chunár, and molasses, sugar, and firewood are exported eastward.

Trade.—The principal imports into the district are grain, English-made cloth and thread, cotton, silk, dried tobacco, salt, metals, hardware, drugs, and leather goods.

The exports are sugar, molasses, indigo, opium, and cloth. There used to be a large trade in refined sugar with Europe, but this has ceased : the trade with other parts of India now amounts to about 45,000 tons a year.

There are 29 European indigo factories and 386 native ones in the district : all the latter have been started since the mutiny : many of both kinds are shut up, and the trade is not flourishing.

23. *Money-lending, wages, and prices.*—The bankers and large traders are chiefly baniahs and Khattri mahájans. They send produce to Patna, Mirzapur, Calcutta, &c., and have agents at those places.

The rates of interest charged in the district in 1877 were approximately as follows :—

- (a.) In small transactions when articles are pawned, from 12 to 15 per cent.
- (b.) In small transactions when only personal security is given, 18 to 37 per cent.
- (c.) In large transactions when jewels, &c., are pledged, 6 to 12 per cent.
- (d.) In large transactions when land is mortgaged, 9 to 18 per cent.

The rates of wages are as follows :—

- (a.) Coolies and unskilled town labourers, 2 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ pence a day.
- (b.) Agricultural labourers, 2 to 3 pence a day.
- (c.) Bricklayers and carpenters, 6 pence to 2 shillings a day.

The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were—

Grain.	Number of seers (2 lbs.) for a rupee (2s.)			
	1st April.	1st August.	1st December.	Average.
Wheat	25	22	21	22
Rice	13	11	10	11
Jowár	32	32
Bájra
Dál	24	25	25	24

24. *History.*—According to the traditions of the district, the Rájbhárs, the Siúrs, the Sengarias, and the Cherús were the aboriginal inhabitants. The headquarters of the Rájbhárs were in the Bhadáon parganah, and they were at one time the chief inhabitants of the district. A great many of the forts still remaining are attributed to them, but often without good reason.

The first regular settlement of the district was made by the Rájputs, and after them by the Bhuiinhárs. The country was then only inhabited by wandering tribes, and their advance was consequently quite unopposed. They absorbed the whole of the land, and the Bhars, &c., have no proprietary right in a single village.

The Muhammadans gradually passed into the district, till in the 15th century the Sharkhi kings of Jaunpur exercised great influence in it. Ibráhím, the second in succession from Khwája Jahán, conquered the eastern part of the district and founded Muhammadabad, while Husseen, the last of the dynasty, helped to take Chiriakot.

With the fall of the Sharkhi family the district passed again into the hands of the Emperors of Delhi. The large brick fort at Sikandarpur is believed to have been built by an Amil or governor of Sikandar Lodi, and named after his master ; but the latter never visited it. Near it is an inscription on a stone, originally placed in a mosque built there in 1521 under Sultán Nasir-ud-din of Bengal, and it appears probable that the town was once destroyed by the river Ghágra cutting right through it.

For many years the district remained peaceably under the Emperors of Delhi, till there rose to influence a family of Gautam Rájputs, who had emigrated from Argal in parganah Korah of the Fatehpur district.

About 1600 A.D. their head, Chandra Sen, lived in Mehan Khás. He had two sons, one of whom turned Musalmán and entered into the service of a risaládár at Allahabad. Here he committed some offence, for which his master made him a eunuch and called him Daulat. He took Daulat to Delhi with him, and there by an accident Daulat got into favour with the Emperor Akbár and amassed a considerable fortune. He was granted the title of Rajah, and finally returned to Mehan Khás and bought the estate afterwards known as Tappah Daulatábád. His nephew, Harbans Rai, built the fort and embankment of Mehnagar. He then attacked the Bishn Rájputs of Tappah Athársi and completely defeated them, and the remains of the fort he built at Azamgarh in 1620 are still to be seen.

One of his descendants, Bikramájit Khan, turned Musalmán and rose to great power. His son, Azim Khan, moved to Azamgarh from Mehnagar and founded the present town, rebuilding the fort built in 1620 by Harbans Rai. He was succeeded by his brother Azmat Khan, who was drowned in crossing the Ghágra when fleeing from an army sent against him from Delhi in 1688. After several successions the property was held by a descendant, Mahábat Khan, and on his deposition the family held the whole of the district except Máhul and Sikandarpur. The river Gumti was the boundary between their lands and those of the Rajah of Benares in Jaunpur, and they also held several parganahs in Gházipur : they had to pay £6,000 a year to the Nawab Khan-i-Khanán of Jaunpur. Mahábat Khan revolted from the latter and the Delhi rule, fortified Azamgarh, and wasted the country all round. An army was sent

against him, but he completely defeated it at Tilasra in parganah Kauria. He then invaded Jaunpur and attacked the Khan-i-Khanán, whose son appealed to Saádat Khan, Viceroy of Oudh, with success. Saádat Khan marched against Mahábát with a large army, and the latter fled into Gorakhpur, but was finally taken prisoner, and died in Saádat's camp at Gorakhpur in 1742.

Under his successor, Irádat Khan, the family lost all their possessions in Jaunpur and Gházipur, but it was he who founded the town of Kopah. He was succeeded by his son Jahán Khan about 1747 A.D., who was murdered by some Oudh sowárs, and was succeeded by Azim Khan, the last of the family who held any power.

After his death the district was ruled by Chakladárs from 1758 to 1777, when an adopted son of the family, named Nádir Khan, became notorious for his marauding expeditions, till he surrendered in 1792. In 1795 he was released, and in 1797 he again resumed his predatory habits, and finally obtained a grant of twelve villages. In 1801 the district was surrendered to the English, and he sued the English Government subsequently for the lands formerly held by the family, but lost his case. The family title of Raja was, however, finally conferred on his son Mubárik Khan in 1826. The latter died in 1858, and was succeeded by the present Raja, Salámat Khan, who receives a pension.

The English rule was never seriously attacked from 1801 to 1857, when the 17th Native Infantry Regiment, then at Azamgarh, mutinied on the 3rd June, murdered some of their officers, and carried off the treasure to Faizábad. The Europeans fled to Gházipur, but on 16th June Messrs. Venables and Dunne returned to Azamgarh, and some troops being sent from Gházipur the town was regained.

On the 18th July the civil officers returned to the station ; and Mr. Venables attacked the rebels, but was forced back on the city, and on the 28th, after the mutiny at Dinapur, the Europeans all returned to Gházipur. The Palwárs held possession of the city from the 9th to the 25th of August ; but they were expelled by the Gúrkhas on the 26th, and on the 3rd September the civil officers returned again. On the 20th Beni Mádho and the Palwárs were defeated, and our authority to a great extent re-established. The rebels were driven out of Atraulia in November, and in January, 1858, the Gúrkhas under Jhang Bahádur marched from Gorakhpur towards Faizábad, driving the rebels back into Azamgarh. Koer Singh entered the district in his flight from Lucknow in the middle of February, and was attacked by our troops at Atraulia ; but the latter were defeated and compelled to fall back on Azamgarh, which was besieged by Koer Singh till the middle of April, when he was defeated by a force under Sir

E. Lugard and the siege raised. Koer Singh left the district, and was killed crossing the Ganges ; but bands of rebels roamed about and attacked tahsifis and thanahs till October, when a force under Colonel Kelly marched through the district and dispersed them all.

25. *Administration.*—The district forms part of the Benares division, and is controlled in revenue and police matters by the commissioner of that place ; in judicial matters it forms a civil and sessions judgeship by itself.

(a) *Revenue and Criminal.*—The district staff generally consists of a magistrate and collector, a joint-magistrate, an assistant magistrate, and an uncovenanted deputy magistrate and collector. There are also at present a settlement officer and two settlement deputy collectors, a district superintendent of police, six tahsifdars or sub-magistrates and sub-collectors of revenue sub-divisions, a sub-deputy opium agent, and three honorary special magistrates with local powers. Of these the magistrate and joint-magistrate are always magistrates of the first class ; the assistant and deputy magistrates are either 1st or 2nd class ; of the sub-magistrates some are 2nd and some 3rd class ; and the special magistrates are, as a rule, all 3rd class. Only the magistrate, joint-magistrate, and assistant are Europeans.

(b) *Civil.*—The civil courts are under the control of a civil and sessions judge, who also supervises the criminal courts. Subordinate to him are one sub-judge and three munsifs, stationed respectively at Azamgarh, Muhammabdábád, and Nagra.

In 1875 the total cost to the State of the maintenance of these courts was £6,175, and the amount realized by court fees and stamps was £6701.

The number of cases decided by each court was as follows :—

Civil judge	} 2,944
Sub-judge	
Munsifs	
Magistrate	
Joint-magistrate	1,982
Assistant magistrate	
Deputy magistrates	
Collector	2,575
Deputy and Assistant collectors	

The average value of the property under litigation in the civil courts was £ 21-8-0.

(c.) *Police.*—In the year 1876 the total strength of the district regular police force was 649. This number consisted of one district superintendent, no officers on more than Rs. 100 a month, 102 officers on less than Rs. 100 a month, 12 mounted constables, 372 foot constables, besides 11 officers and 151 men paid entirely from other than imperial revenues. The cost

of maintaining this force was £7,838, of which £7,007 was payable from provincial revenues. The total strength of the police of the district is 3·92 men per square mile, and one man to every 2,359 of the population. The cost of maintenance is equal to £3·05 per square mile, or 1·2 per head of the population.

(d.) *Jail.*—There are a district jail and a magistrate's lock-up at Azamgarh, besides the ordinary police and tahsili lock-ups.

(1.) The district jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 392 prisoners, of whom 351 were male and 41 female.

It is under the charge of the civil surgeon, who has under him a jailor and 35 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 32-9-0.

The average outturn of labour was Rs. 6.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 1,360.

The rate of mortality was 1·16 per cent. of average strength.

(2.) The lock-up contained in 1875 a daily average of 39 under-trial prisoners, of whom 37 were males and two were females.

(e.) *Postal and Telegraph.*—There is a district post-office at Azamgarh and 18 non-disbursing post-offices in the district.

There are no telegraph offices.

26. *Revenue and Finance.*—The district local funds amounted in 1875 to £34,193 and the expenditure to £24,159.

There was one municipality in the district; of this the receipts and expenditure were as follows in 1875:—

Municipality.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Incidence of taxation per head.
	£	£	Rs. a. p.
Azamgarh	... 1,532	1,121	0 12 3

The whole amount of revenue raised in the district (including imperial, municipal, and local funds) in 1875 was £238,976, or on a population of 1,531,482 an incidence per head of £3·2-0 : out of this £68,435, or 29 per cent. of the total receipts, was returned to the district in payment for its administration. The new settlement was commenced in 1868, and will be concluded this year (1877): it has at present resulted in an increase of revenue from £129,969 to £171,160, or by £41,191, and it has cost £117,817.

27. *Medical statistics.*—There are two dispensaries in the district: one at Azamgarh and one at Nagra. During 1875, 8,674 persons in all were treated

in these, of whom 8,591 were out-door patients and 83 in-door. The number of persons vaccinated in 1876 was 11,608.

The total number of deaths in the year 1875 was 27,281, or 17·81 per 1,000 of the population. The mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 for the previous six years was 15·10.

28. *Education.*—In the year 1875 there were 438 Government schools, or on an average one school for every 11·7 inhabited villages, and for every 5·92 square miles, with an average attendance of 11,702 pupils, or .76 per cent. of the entire population.

29. *Fairs and chief towns.*—The chief towns of the district are—

- (1.) Azamgarh, with a population of 15,770, and a municipal income of £1,033 per annum. It extends over 325 square acres, and has 48 persons per acre. The rate of taxation is Re. 0-10 6 per head. It was founded by Azam Khan about 1665.
- (2.) Mau, in parganah Mau Nathbanjan, with a population of 11,315, an income of £221, covering 288 square acres, and having 39 persons to the acre. The rate of taxation is Re. 0-3-2.
- (3.) Kopaganj, in parganah Muhammádábád, with a population of 6,633, an income of £113, and a rate of taxation of Re. 0-2-9. It extends over 123 square acres, and has 54 persons to the acre.
- (4.) Mubárakpur, in parganah Muhammádábád, with a population of 5,795, an income of £133, and a rate of taxation of Re. 0-3-8. It 100 square acres, and has 58 persons to the acre.
- (5.) Dubári, in parganah Náthupur, with a population of 5,014, an income of £56, and a rate of taxation of Re. 0-1-10. It extends over 138 square acres, and has 36 persons to the acre.
- (6.) Pur Tallukahpur, in parganah Sikandarpur, with a population of 5,213. It extends over 114 acres, and has 46 persons to the square acre.

Fairs.—There are altogether 40 annual fairs in the district. Of these the chief are—

- (1.) At Durbásá in pargana Nizámábád, on the full-moon of Kartik : it only lasts one day.
- (2.) At Bhairo-ká-asthán, at the junction of the Choti Sarju and Ghágra, on the 10th of the light half of Jeth.
- (3.) At Dohrighát on the Ghágra, on the full-moon of Kartik, a bathing festival,

(4.) At Deolas in Muhammádábád, on the 6th of the light half of Kartik : it lasts three days.

30. *Archæology*.—There are 18 forts in parganah Bhadáon and 17 in parganah Sikandarpur, attributed to the Bhárs, the chief tribe anciently inhabiting the district. Some of them are of enormous size, but the builder's name or the causes of their being built are quite unknown. The largest is that at Ghosi, said to have been built by Raja Ghos with the help of demons.

In Máhárájganj in pargana Gopálpur there is an old shrine of Bhairo, which is said to have formed the eastern gate of Ajudhia, when it had four gates each forty-two kos distant from it.

The following works are also attributed to Asurs or demons, but were really constructed in very early times, so that their origin was lost:—

- (1.) A large excavation from the Kuar to the Nangái rivers.
- (2.) A tunnel from the Chambhaipur or Bindraban fort running for a mile into the Narja Tál ; but few traces of this now remain.

At Deogáon there is a pillar with an inscription, of date 1201 Samvat, stating that it was erected by a treasurer to perpetuate his name in the reign of Govindra Chandra Deva.

20th February, 1877.

A. COTTERELL TUPP.

BAREILLY.

BAREILLY.

A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. *Position and area.*—The district of Bareilly—bounded on the north by the Tarái parganahs, on the east by Nipál and Sháhjahánpur, on the south by Sháhjahánpur and Budaun, and on the west by Budaun and the territory of the Nawáb of Rámpur—lies between $28^{\circ} 2' 0''$ and $29^{\circ} 2' 0''$ north latitude, and between $79^{\circ} 2' 30''$ and $80^{\circ} 30' 15''$ east longitude, and contains an area of 2,982 square miles and a population of 1,507,139 persons, or 505 to the square mile.

2. *Sub-divisions.*—The district is divided into eight tahsilis or sub-collectorates and nineteen parganahs, as follows, from south to north :—

Tahsili.	Parganah.			Revenue, 1876.
				£.
1. Bisalpur	1. Bisalpur	...
			2. Marori	...
2. Faridpur	1. Faridpur	...
3. Aonla	1. Ballia	...
			2. Saneha	...
			3. Aunla	...
			4. S. Sarauli	...
4. Kror	1. Kror	...
5. Mirganj	1. N. Sarauli	...
			2. Shahi	...
			3. Ajáon	...
6. Nawábganj	1. Nawábganj	...
7. Baheri	1. Richha	...
			2. Kábar	...
			3. Sirsáwan	...
			4. Chaumahla	...
8. Pilibhit	1. Puranpur	...
			2. Pilibhit	...
			3. Jahsnábad	...
			Total	...
				204,814

3. *Physical geography and boundaries.*—The district is roughly a square in shape, but its north-east and south-west corners project beyond the line of the square. Its northern boundary begins at Tandah in parganah Chaumahla, on the borders of the Rámpur territory, in longitude $79^{\circ} 28'$, and runs due east for 40 miles till it strikes the river Sarju (or Ghogra) at the point where it issues from Nipál territory ; hence the east boundary runs south-eastwards along the course of the Sarju for 36 miles, when it curves south-west round parganahs Khuthár and Powain of Sháhjahánpur for 32 miles till it strikes the Kanhaut Naddi ; thence it turns due south, past Marauri, and following the river Kanhaut for 20 miles joins the southern boundary near Negohi. The south boundary runs in a very irregular line westwards for 24 miles till it crosses the river Deoha or Garra, thence it turns south for 18 miles to near Fatehganj on the Rohilkhand Railway, having followed the Baigul Naddi for the last 8 miles ; it then crosses to Khera, and turns north-west along the Ramganga river, following its course for 20 miles, and then crossing westwards from Ballia to Wazírganj in Budann 24 miles ; hence it turns north-west again, past Aunla, till it reaches the Aril Naddi (12 miles), which it follows for 10 miles to its junction with the Gánigan, and then that river up to the point at which it issues from Rámpur territory : here the west boundary begins and runs at first for 8 miles due east till it crosses the Ramganga ; thence it turns north along the Rámpur boundary, past Khatah, for 24 miles, till it reaches a point only 6 miles east of Rámpur itself, from which point it runs north-east for 28 miles till it meets the northern boundary at Tandah.

There is no hill or natural eminence in the district. There are, however, up-land and low-land tracts known as “ bângar ” and “ khadir.” The latter are formed by the valleys of the rivers Kanhaut, Deoha, Baigul, and Ramganga ; and the rise from them to the up-lands is everywhere perceptible and usually well-marked. The largest of these low-lands is in the valley of the Ramganga, which in one place extends from the station of Bareilly to Aunla, or over 16 miles. The Ramganga has wandered over the whole of this at different times, fertilising the land with alluvial deposits wherever it has passed.

The difference in level between the low-land and up-land tracts ranges from 10 to 25 feet, but along the west bank of the Kanhaut it is higher. The general level of the up-land tract gradually and regularly falls from a height of 658 feet above sea-level in the extreme north to 520 feet in the extreme south at Fatehganj.

The up-land is not a dead flat, but is composed of gentle undulations, often well-defined, and occasionally rising into sand hills. As a whole, however, the district may be described as a level tract intersected by numerous streams and thickly studded with noble groves of trees. The greater part of it partakes of the nature of the alluvial valleys of the Ganges and Jumna, and never presents such high arid plains as those that form a large part of the Doáb and of the country west of the Jumna : almost everywhere water lies near the surface, and the verdure and frequent rivers recall the aspect of Lower Bengal rather than of Upper India.

The district is also locally divided into "desh" and "mar," the former being the old cleared country, the latter the sub-Himalayan forest tract, of which only a small portion is included in the district. It is very unhealthy from the amount of forest and the height of the spring-levels.

The line of the "mar" is gradually receding with the extension of population and the spread of cultivation.

In the extreme west of the district beyond the Nawal Naddi and the Aril, in the western parts of parganahs Aunla and South Sarauli the land lies high, the soil is dry, and irrigation is generally used for the superior spring crops. The depth from the surface to the spring-level is 16 to 26 feet. In the khadir the depth to water ranges from 2 to 7 feet, in the up-land it is on the average 11 feet 8 inches.

In seasons of drought elsewhere the khadir is in its glory and produces magnificent crops with moderate rains. The ordinary inundations do more good than harm by destroying white-ants and by depositing rich soil which acts as manure, but with heavy rains the autumn crops are destroyed, and the ground remains so long saturated with water that the rabbi sowings can only take place very late in the season, and the yield is stunted and scanty, and frequently affected by rust.

4. Rivers.—As might be expected from its sub-Himalayan position, the district is traversed by numerous rivers, of which, however, two only, the Ramganga and the Deoha, are large and important streams. The rest are of lesser note.

(1.) The Ramganga rises in the Himalayas in the Kumaun district, and, after passing through Moradabad and Rámpur, strikes into Bareilly at Sháhpur, in parganah Sarauli, just north of the town of Sarauli. It then forms the boundary between the tahsils of Mírganj and Aunla and Karor and Faridpur, and the Budaun district.

In Bareilly it acts as a catchwater drain to the rivers coming from the north-east, and carries them all off into the great Ganges, which it joins between Kanauj and Bilgram in the Fatehgarh district.

Its affluents in Bareilly are the Dojara, the Sankha, the Sidha, the Dioranian, and the Nakatia, all of which join it on the east bank, and the Andharia and Hiran Phúndan nala on the west bank.

The banks are clearly defined, being vertical; indeed, they really overhang at a slope of about one-fourth to one, for the current running down undermines them until the superincumbent earth by its own gravity falls into the water. At other parts, again, and on the opposite bank, it is frequently found sloping by means of little vertical steps made by the current as the floods subside.

The river is very variable in its course, as from the slight structure of its bed, and the alluvial nature of the soil on either bank, it may cut out a fresh bed for itself at any time. Twenty years ago it had its main stream below Gaini, ten miles to the west of Bareilly. Then it cut into the Dajora, and ran past the city of Bareilly, and in the rains of 1871 it again returned to its old channel. Throughout the whole distance between the Bareilly cantonments and the Arail, or some 15 miles, its old beds are tracable. The lowness of its bed, as compared with the neighbouring up-land, and the width of the low-land, render the river throughout its course in Bareilly quite useless for irrigation purposes. There is a little boat traffic on it in the rains, though the amount is very variable, mainly depending on the prices ruling for cereals down country. The boats are usually laden with grain, sál logs, and bambus.

Bambu rafts, some 200 feet long, are now and then floated down the river to Cawnpore. During the hot weather the river becomes fordable at most places. There are pontoon bridges at the Idgahghát below the city of Bareilly, and at Sardárnagar on the Bareilly and Budaun road, and boat bridges at Sarauli, Gaini, Kiara, and Kadirganj Nagarai.

The floods are very considerable, spreading out, not in defined drainage lines, but in wide sheets; as a rule, the deposits are fine alluvial mud. In places, however, where the current is strong, river sand is left, rendering the land barren until it has been fertilized by subsequent deposits.

(2.) The Decha, known in the hills as the Nanda, rises in the Chaubisi Bhábar in Kumaun. Its water, like that of the streams to the east of it, contains a large quantity of lime in solution, and after rain it is from this cause of a milky whiteness. The springs from the hills immediately above where it debouches are very strongly impregnated with lime, and deposit it either

pure or in stalactites in large quantities. This is exported to Bareilly, Pilibhit, and Sháhjahánpur, where it is highly esteemed for its excellent quality.

The river enters Pilibhit parganah near Gangapur, and flowing due south with a rapid current, forms for some miles the western boundary of that parganah. Then, traversing Bisalpur, it passes into parganah Jalalpur in Sháhjahánpur, where it is known as the Garrah, and eventually joins the Ramganga near Sandi in the district of Hardui in Oudh.

Being subject to violent floods from the mountains, its channel is at times very broad and deep, whilst in the hot weather it does not carry above 200 cubic feet a second. During the rains it is navigable by boats of 400 māns burden.

As its bed is much below the level of the surrounding country, and is of considerable width, it is useless for purposes of irrigation. Its low-land is not so uniformly good for agricultural purposes as that of the Ramganga, as it is more variable in soil, according to the depth of the alluvial deposits. The bed and banks are similar to those of the Ramganga. There is a bridge of boats at Bisalpur, which is maintained only in the cold and hot seasons. Boats ply during the rains.

(3.) The East Baigúl rises near Lalhar, in parganah Kilpuri, in the Tarái district, and after traversing that parganah enters Richha at its northern point near Harharpur Samkha; then flows through Richha, Nawabganj, Karor, and Faridpur, and eventually joins the Ramganga at mauza Dhakia in parganah Mhairabad in Sháhjahánpur. The formation of the river-bed is alluvial. The soil of the bed itself is sand. The river is crossed by the Rohilkhand Trunk Road at Fatehganj, over an old pakka bridge built by the Rohillas. There is another pakka bridge between Nawabganj and Háfizganj on the Bareilly and Pilibhit road, and a public ferry on the Bareilly and Bisalpur road. The water is largely used for irrigation purposes, and is considered by the cultivators as peculiarly suited to sugarcane, wheat, gram, and masúr. In the northern parts considerable diluvial and erosive action is going on, owing to the admission of the Sukhi, a Tarái stream. The tendency of this is to raise the bed of the Baigúl, widen the channel, and form a khadir, and gradually to convert the section of the Baigúl into one suitable to hill streams.

(4.) The Nakatia rises in a jhil near Baraúr in parganah Nawabganj. After traversing that parganah and Karor it falls into the Ramganga at its left bank near Kalpúr in Faridpur. It was on the banks of this stream that Lord Clyde's army was opposed in 1858 by the united rebel forces under Firoz Shah and Khan Bahadur Khan.

The banks are at places clearly defined, and at others gently sloping. The soil of the bed is alluvial, and the bottom clay. The river is not navigable at any time of the year : it drains an area of about 92 square miles, and is almost dry in the cold season. It is crossed by the Bareilly and Fatehgarh roads, and the Bareilly and Pilibhit roads over old masonry bridges, and by the Bareilly and Bisalpur roads by a ford. Throughout its whole length the water is utilized for irrigation.

5. The Dioranian rises at Firozpur, in parganah Rudarpur, in the Tarai, traverses Richha and Karor, and falls into the Ramganga just to the north-west of the town of Bareilly, near the Idgah bridge. It is crossed by the Naini Tál and Moradabad roads over masonry bridges. The latter was built in 1842 by Diwán Bahadur Singh, an ex-sheristadar of the Bareilly collectorate.

During the hot weather the current is hardly perceptible. The height of the floods in 1871 was 10 feet above low-water level. The river then overtopped its banks and flooded the surrounding country. Throughout its length the river is dammed at intervals for purposes of irrigation.

(6.) The Sanka is formed by the junction of the Gora and Lila nala to the north-west of parganah Karor, and after traversing the parganah falls into the Ramganga near Bahjuia. It is crossed by a masonry bridge on the Moradabad road, south of Fatehganj. The banks are clearly defined, the best stiff clay ; it is dammed at intervals throughout its length for irrigation.

(7.) The Sidha rises in the Rampur territory, and after passing through the parganahs of Sarauli and Shahi joins the Ramganga on its left bank near Labhira. It is crossed by boats in the rains ; at other seasons it is fordable.

The banks are clearly defined, in most places sloping ; the bed is of sand and clay. The floods in the rains are heavy, and do much damage to the autumn crops of the neighbouring villages.

(8.) The Dojora, as its name implies, is formed by the junction of two pairs of streams, the Kicha and West Baigul on the west side, and the Dhakura and Bhakra on the east. They join below Dibni Pauncha to the north-west of parganah Karor, whence, taking a south-easterly course, the river joins the Ramganga on its left bank near Haibatpur. The old point of junction was some miles lower down, but a few years before the mutiny the Ramganga left its old bed and broke into the Dojora. The banks are high, and the water cannot be utilized for irrigation. It is not navigable, but occasionally timber and bamboo rafts are floated down during the rains.

(9.) The river Kicha debouches from the mountains at Bhumaúri. It is the recipient of the floods from Naini Tál, Malwa Tál, and Bhim Tál, and forms one of the principal lines of drainage to the lower Himalayas between the Kosilla on the west and the Deoha on the east. When the rains on the mountains have been sufficiently violent to cause the lakes to overflow considerably, floods come down this river 14 feet, and it is even said 17 feet deep, carrying with them large trees. After traversing the parganahs of Kilpuri and Rúdarpur, and receiving the supply of the Gola, another hill stream, it enters Chaumahla at Mundia; thence taking a due southerly course passes on into Kabar, where it receives the Khalua and Baraur rivers on its right and the Khalúa on its left, and joins the West Baigul at Baripura in Kabar. The banks are abrupt on the side where erosive action is taking place, shelving on the other side. The bed is generally of river sand. The river is not navigable, the bed is narrow, and there is no khádir tract.

(10.) The West Baigul is a Tarái stream flowing through the Rámpur jágir; it enters Sirsawan to the north-west, near Dhakia. After receiving the Kicha on its left bank, it forms for some distance the western boundary of parganah Kabar; passing through Sháhi, it receives the Kúlli on its right bank, and a little further down the Dhora on its left bank, and joins the Dojora at Dibni Pauncha. It is crossed by the Moradabad road near Piparia by a ferry in the rains, and a bridge of boats in the rest of the year. During the hot season it is fordable throughout its length.

(11.) The Dhora is a Tarái spring which receives the supply of a similar stream called the Katna before leaving the Tarái district. It enters Chaumahla at its north-east angle, and traversing Chaumahla, Richha, and part of Sháhi, falls into the West Baigul near Biphri. It is crossed by the Naini Tál road by a masonry bridge with three arches. The bed and banks are of clay. The river is dammed throughout its course by the canal department for irrigation purposes.

(12.) The Arail rises in Moradabad near Amroha, enters South Sarauli at its south-western angle near Galaria, forming the boundary between Sarauli and Bisauli in Budaun. After traversing parganah Aunla from the north-west to the south-east it goes on through the Budaun district and falls into the Ganges. It is crossed by the Aunla and Budaun roads over masonry bridges. The one over the former was built 125 years ago by Fateh Khan Khansamah, one of the Rohilla chiefs.

The river answers all the purposes of a large irrigation canal. At many places ducts are cut, and the water is taken to villages at a considerable distance from its banks.

The bed is tortuous, with a flooded width in high floods of from 600 to 1,200 feet on an average, but extending in some places to 1,800 feet, with an average fall of 2·31 feet per mile.

The valley is about 2,600 feet in width; it is well-defined and the sides are moderately steep.

The channel is about 30 feet wide; the banks are generally vertical. The river frequently rises five or six feet after a couple of hours' rain, and falls again as rapidly.

(13.) The Nawab Naddi was originally a canal, cut from the Arail by Ali Muhammad Khan 140 years ago. It runs close to the town of Aunla, and rejoins the parent stream about seven miles south-east of that town. The banks are gently sloping, as a rule, but in some places are very undefined. The bottom is silt.

In the cold season, owing to the construction of the irrigation dams, there is hardly any current at all.

(14.) The Kanhaut rises in the Puranpur forest, passing through that parganah and forming the eastern boundary of Bisalpur. It joins the Deoha below Sháhjahánpur. In its upper course it is a series of swamps, but lower down the bed becomes well-defined between high banks. It is subject to violent floods, rising occasionally 12 feet above low-water level.

5. *Lakes.*—There are no real lakes in the district, but there are several large dubris or backwaters of the Ramganga and Deoha, and a few large jhils or temporary lakes. These are all well stocked with fish, and produce pasai or wild rice and singháras. They have a good depth of water, but never become swamps, except in Pilibhit and Puranpur.

6. *Forests and waste lands.*—All the low-land tracts when uncultivated produce thatching grass most abundantly.

There is most forest in the Pilibhit sub-division, but there is a tolerably extensive tract to the north-east of the Bisalpur tahsíl between the Málá and Kanhaut rivers: this is a continuation of the Bilheri forest in Pilibhit. It is mostly composed of stunted sál, shisham, and dhák trees, with a thick undergrowth of coarse jangal. The wood is of little value as timber, but the forest affords pastureage to the neighbourhood, and is the shelter of nilgai, spotted deer, and pig, and sometimes of a tiger or a leopard.

To the south of Bisalpur, and in the Aunla tahsíl, there are still large patches of old stunted dhák jangal intermixed with thorny scrub, and almost impenetrable; these are the last remains of the forest which once covered nearly

the whole district. In the reign of Firoz Shah it was the favourite hunting ground of the emperor. The open spaces covered with grass are carefully preserved, and the grass sold for thatching. There is very little úsar or salt-petre land in the district, except one large plain south of Islamabad, in Saneha, on the borders of the Budaun district, and another tract on the Sanka, to the west of Karor : in the north of the district the patches that do appear are of very small extent.

7. *Geology.*—The whole district is an alluvial plain, but it has gentle undulations, and occasionally rises into sand hills : most of it is like the alluvial valleys of the large rivers, and not like the high arid plains of the Doáb and trans-Jumna country. In sinking wells in the bed of the East Baigul, the strata met with were first sand, then pebbles, next clay, and finally kankar.

In the bed of the Nakutia 3 feet of clay, 6 feet of sand, 13 feet of clay, and a thick bed of kankar were met with. The best kankar beds lie along this river, and between it and the Dioranian.

In the bed of the Dioranian the strata passed through were alternately sand and clay down to a depth of 27 feet, when boulders were met with.

8. *Climate.*—The average total rainfall was 41.8 inches for the 11 years from 1860 to 1870. During this period the maximum was 62.8 inches in 1867, and the minimum was 19.7 inches in 1860.

The annual mean temperature was 76° in 1870, and the same in 1871 ; the lowest monthly mean was 25° in January, and the highest 91° in May and in June.

The climate of the district is largely influenced by its proximity to the hills ; and Bareilly city and all the northern parganahs are fully within the limits of the heavier storms. The rainy season begins a little earlier than further south, and ends a little later, and the cold weather lasts longer. The climate is damp, the heat moderate, and the hot winds not very violent. They blow from the middle of April to the middle of June, and in May there are rain-storms which cool the air. In June the regular rains reduce the temperature from 95° to 85°, and thence till the middle of August is enjoyable weather. From the middle of August there is little wind, and the rain, though heavy, is only occasional, so that the days are very hot. By the second week in October the temperature lessens, and out-of-door life becomes possible : from then till the end of March the climate is delightful. There are generally two or three days of heavy rain early in January, and during the cold weather there are often heavy fogs (koer).

9. *Minerals and trees.*—The numerous groves which are dotted over the plains of Bareilly form a special and beautiful feature in the landscape: every village has two or three in its area, and they afford shade in the summer heat, and wood and fruit to the villagers. They are generally mango, jáman, gúlar, or shisham: of these the mango produces the finest trees, but the jáman and the shisham the best foliage. The mango fruit is generally allowed to be picked by any villager who may want it. The jáman is very tough and elastic, and has a polished ever-green leaf, while the mango is brittle, and its leaves generally dusty and burnt. There are also many groves of bambus, the finest being at Sayadpur, close to Baheri. This is 300 yards by 100, and the bambus are planted in regular rows, and form a succession of aisles, which are supported on either hand by clusters of slender columns, and roofed overhead by the arch of the intersecting stems. There are fine groves also at Fatehganj and Kuadanda in Faridpúr, at Deuria in Karor, in the north suburbs of Bareilly, and at Bisalpur and Aunla. There are 43,448 acres under groves, or 3·4 per cent. of the total area.

The trees are the ordinary trees of a Rohilkhand district, besides those mentioned above; a list is given under "Budaun." There are no mineral products in this district, saltpetre even not being manufactured to any extent. Kankar (nodular limestone) is dug out and used for metalling roads and making lime.

10. *Animals, birds, and fishes.*—All the domestic animals usual in Northern India are found in this district: the cattle used for ploughing are either bred in the district or purchased from the graziers in the Tarái forests, and a few are brought from the west. They are all of a small weak breed, but they do for the plough. They are put to work at 3 to 4 years old, and last 11 to 12 years. The average cost of a good pair of plough bullocks is £1-16 to £2-8, and the price has increased very much in the last ten years. The bullocks kept for carrying packs or for carriages are far higher priced.

Of wild animals, the antelope, nilgái, wild boar, hare, ravine deer, spotted deer, &c., are common, and the tiger, leopard, marsh deer, hog-deer, &c., are found in the Pilibhit sub-division and in the parganahs bordering on the Tarái.

Of wild birds, peafowl, partridges (black and grey), water-fowl, (teal, ducks, geese, &c.), cranes, rock-pigeons, sand-grouse, jangal fowl, bustard, quail, curlews, and kulang are all found. A complete list of the birds and animals usually found in a North-West district is given under "Agra," and the various kinds of fish are there enumerated also. The most common kinds in Bareilly are the rahu, mahásir, anwári (mullet), and gunch (fresh-water shark).

11. *Population, &c.*—In the census of 1872 there were 2,982 square miles in the Bareilly district, with 3,548 mauzas, 296,441 houses, and a population of 1,507,139.

There were 505 persons and 1·2 villages to the square mile, 425 persons per village, and 5 persons per house. There were 10,155 masonry houses and 286,286 mud ones. Of the sexes, there were 806,913 males and 699,888 females.

The numbers of each religion and sex were as follows :—

Hindús	... {	Males	644,426
		Females	553,157
					Total	...	1,197,583

Musalmáns	... {	Males	162,278
		Females	146,404
					Total	...	306,682

Christians	... {	Males	209
		Females	327
					Total	...	536

The percentages of each sex and religion on the total population were as follows :—

Hindús	79·5	Males	53·5
Musalmáns	20·5	Females	46·5

There were 3·3 persons above 60 years of age, and 21,877 males able to read and write. The total agricultural population was 951,514. The area of assessed land was 2,717 square miles, of which 323 were uncultivable, 547 cultivable, and 1,847 cultivated ; and there were besides 8 square miles of uncultivable unassessed land.

The amount of land revenue was £207,442, and the rates and cesses on land £21,910, and the incidence of the land revenue per culturable acre was Re. 1-5-7. The percentage of agricultural on total population was 63·1.

The numbers of the chief Hindú castes and Musalmán tribes were as follows :—

Hindús	... {	Brahmans	76,442
		Rajputs	44,669
		Banials	30,726
		Ahirs	47,238
		Chamars	132,798
		Kayaths	22,610
		Kurmis	166,280

Musalmáns,	Shekhs	243,757
	Saiads	8,616
	Moghals	4,159
	Pathans	51,680

The numbers of males above 15 in each of the six great classes of occupations were :—

Professional	4,483
Domestic	60,224
Commercial	16,899
Agricultural	307,012
Industrial	69,425
Indefinite	40,957
			Total	...	499,000

There were altogether 3,548 inhabited villages and towns, of which 1,264 contained less than 200 inhabitants, 1,432 less than 500, 660 less than 1,000, 154 less than 2,000, 27 less than 3,000, 7 less than 5,000, 1 less than 10,000, 1 less than 20,000, and 2 above 20,000.

The first census was taken in 1830 by Mr. H. S. Boulderson, who found an average of 325 per square mile, which would give a population of 968,150 on the present area of 2,982 square miles.

There was also a census in 1847 which gave 466·5 persons per square mile, or a population of 1,369,003 on the present area.

In the census of 1853 the population was 1,316,830, and in 1865 it was 1,387,494, while in 1872 it was 1,507,139 ; but the area included in the district varied considerably (being 3,119 in 1853, 2,372 in 1865, and 2,982 in 1872), so that these figures are not a true criterion of the increase or decrease in population of this part of the country.

Area.—This was 3,119 in 1853, 2,372 in 1865, and 2,982 in 1872: it therefore decreased by 747 square miles, or 31·5 per cent., in the first twelve years, and increased by 610 square miles, or 25·7 per cent., in the latter seven years. The total decrease was therefore 137 square miles in the whole nineteen years, or 4·6 per cent. on the present area.

Population.—The total population was 1,316,830 in 1853, 1,387,494 in 1865, and 1,507,139 in 1872: it therefore increased by 70,664, or 5·3 per cent., from 1853 to 1865; by 119,645, or 8·6 per cent., from 1865 to 1872 ; and by 190,309, or 14·4 per cent., in the whole nineteen years from 1853 to 1872. We therefore find that it increased in the former period at the rate of 44 per cent. per annum, while in the latter it increased at the rate of 1·23 per cent. per annum, and during the whole period of nineteen years at the rate of .76 per cent. per annum.

Sex.—There were of males in 1853, 698,259; in 1865, 742,651; and in 1872, 806,913: they therefore increased in the first period by 44,392, or 6·3 per cent., and in the second by 64,262, or 8·6 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 108,654, or 15·5.

There were of females in 1853, 618,571; in 1865, 644,843; and in 1872, 699,888: they therefore increased in the first period by 26,272, or 4·2 per cent., and in the second by 55,045, or 8·5 per cent., while in the whole nineteen years the increase was 81,317, or 13·1 per cent.

The proportion of males to females was—

1·12 to 1 in 1853.

1·15 „ 1 „ 1865.

1·15 „ 1 „ 1872.

The proportion of males therefore slightly increased from 1853 to 1865, and then remained stationary till 1872.

The males increased by 6·3 and 8·4 per cent., or by 15·5 per cent. on the whole. The females increased by 4·2 and 8·5 per cent., or by 13·1 per cent. on the whole. So that in the first period the males increased 2 per cent. faster than the females, and in the second period both sexes were equal, while on the whole the males increased nearly $2\frac{1}{2}$ times faster than the females.

The annual rates of increase were:—

	Increase per cent.				
	Males.		Females.		
In the first period	·52
In the second period	1·2
In the whole period	·82
					·35 1·2 ·68

12. *Religion.*—There were 1,024,247 Hindús in 1852; 1,082,459 in 1865; and 1,197,533 in 1872; they therefore increased in the first period by 58,212, or 5·6 per cent., and in the second by 115,074, or 10·6 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 173,286, or 16·9 per cent.

There were 292,583 Musalmáns in 1853; 298,875 in 1865; and 308,682 in 1872: they therefore increased in the first period by 6,292, or 2·1 per cent., and in the second by 9,807, or 3·2 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 16,099, or 5·5 per cent.

The proportion of Hindús to Musalmáns was:—

1·12 to 1 in 1853.

1·15 „ 1 „ 1865.

1·15 „ 1 „ 1872.

The proportion of Hindús therefore very slightly increased from 1853 to 1865, and then remained stationary till 1872.

The Hindús increased by 5·6 and 10·6 per cent., or by 16·9 per cent. on the whole. The Musalmáns increased by 2·1 and 3·2, or 5·5 per cent. on the whole. So that in the first period the Hindús increased about twice as fast as the Musalmáns, and in the second period about three times as quick ; as they did also on the whole period from 1853 to 1872.

13. *Land revenue*.—In 1853 the land revenue was Rs. 17,69,610 ; in 1865 Rs. 16,11,929 ; and in 1872 Rs. 20,74,422 : it therefore decreased during the first period by Rs. 1,57,681, or 9·8 per cent., and increased during the second by Rs. 4,62,493, or 28·7 per cent., while the total increase on the whole nineteen years was Rs. 3,04,812, or 17·2 per cent. The decrease was therefore 8 per cent. per annum from 1853 to 1865, and the increase was 4·1 per cent. per annum from 1865 to 1872, and 9 per cent. per annum on the whole period from 1853 to 1872.

Number of mauzas.—This was 3,563 in 1853, 3,032 in 1865, and 3,548 in 1872. The mauzas therefore decreased by 531, or 17·5 per cent., from 1853 to 1865, and increased by 516, or 17·0 per cent., from 1865 to 1872 ; the total decrease in number in the whole nineteen years being 15, or 4 per cent., or 0·2 per cent. per annum. It is rather remarkable that the number of mauzas diminished just as much in the first twelve years as it increased in the last seven.

Persons per square mile.—In 1853 there were 442 persons per square mile ; in 1865, 585 ; and in 1872, 505 : the density of population therefore increased by 143 in the first period of twelve years, or by 32·3 per cent., or 2·6 per cent. per annum ; it decreased by 80 during the second period of seven years, or by 15·8 per cent., or 2·2 per cent. per annum, and increased by 63, or 14·2 per cent., or 74 per cent. per annum in the whole period of nineteen years.

This district therefore increased more rapidly than Bijnor or Budahn, but not so quickly as Moradabad ; it is as high as the highest in the Meerut division, and nearly twice as high as the average.

Between 1830 and 1846 there was a slight decrease in the population, caused probably by the famine of 1838-39 : between 1846 and 1865 there was an increase of 30 per cent. of persons per square mile, though the period included the rebellion of 1857 : there were great immigrations from the west both in 1860-61 and in 1869-70 on account of the great drought and scarcity in the Doáb. The best cultivators in Bareilly are the Kurmis (whose women and children work in the fields), Lodhs, Murais, Chamárs, and Játs.

14. *Towns and villages.*—The following are the towns with a population over 2,000 in 1865:—

No.	Parganah.	Town.	Population.
1	Kror	Bareilly	105,649
2	Aunla	Aunla	9,947
3	Bisalpur	Bisalpur	9,005
4	Faridpur	Faridpur	4,940
5	Sirauli	Sirauli	4,585
6	Nawabganj	Nawabganj	4,418
7	Aunla	Shiopuri	4,316
8	Nawabganj	Senthal	4,145
9	Mirganj	Shahi	4,089
10	Richa	Richa	3,879
11	Bisalpur	Bimroli	3,831
12	Saneha	Basháratganj	2,924
13	Nawabganj	Baraur	2,995
14	Saneha	Gaini	2,906
15	Sirauli	Ramnagar	2,715
16	Aunla	Gurgawan	2,604
17	Faridpur	Fatehganj, East	2,557
18	Kror	Fatehganj, West	2,451
19	Ballia	Ballia	2,451
20	Bisalpur	Bilsanda	2,429
21	Kror	Selehnagar	2,337
22	Richa	Faridpur	2,333
23	Mirganj	Sindholi	2,185
24	Ditto	Haldi	2,068
25	Ditto	Dunka	2,013

It will be seen from this list that there is only one city, Bareilly, and only two large towns, Bisalpur and Aunla, in the district : these two have both over 9,000 inhabitants, but we then drop at once to towns of less than 5,000 : so that there are only these three towns with more than 5,000 inhabitants. There are no fortified or walled towns in the district, and only a few old ruined forts, none of which are of any military strength. The houses in villages are both mud-roofed and tiled ; in the large towns they are generally tiled or with flat roofs of timber covered with stones or bricks. These latter are often two-storied, and are substantially built round a courtyard after the Continental fashion.

The poorest houses are merely mud-built walls with a roof of wattle and dab, and often even the walls are of the latter description.

In the north, along the Taráí, some of the houses are supported on pillars or piles, or built above cellars to keep them dry, as the water is here so very near the surface of the ground.

15. *Value of house and furniture.*—The cost of building a house of the best class may be considered to be from £200 upwards, of the second class from £15 to £150, and of the third class from £1 to £10.

A trader's house of the better class contains generally about £50 worth of furniture and utensils of all kinds. Bedsteads, mattresses, quilts, carpets, and boxes would represent about £30 worth of this, and cooking vessels the remainder.

A well-to-do cultivator owns a few strong boxes and bedsteads, and quilts worth about £10, besides cooking vessels worth £5 or £6. An artizan in middling circumstances possesses one or two bedsteads and quilts and some drinking and cooking vessels, worth altogether about £3.

A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars, one or two quilts, and perhaps a bedstead, worth in all 10 shillings to a pound.

Besides his house and furniture, every agriculturist has the implements of his trade, which cost about 24 shillings altogether: they are with their respective cost:—

	Rs. a. p.
Plough	1 0 0
Ploughshare	1 0 0
Wooden boot for ploughshare	0 2 0
Yoke	1 4 0
Whip	0 2 0
Harrow	1 8 0
Rake, spade, and hoe	3 4 0
Spud, sickle, and chopper	1 1 0
Wheel, lever, and ropes	3 2 0
Earthen pots and basket	0 6 0
 Total	 ... 12 13 0

16. *Trades-unions*.—As in other districts, there are no organized trades-unions in the English sense of the word, but the powerful caste pancháyats answer very much the same purpose, though they have a much wider field of action than an English trades-union has. Cultivators sometimes band together to resist enhancement of their rents, and pay *pro rata* contributions to a general fund. Goldsmiths, grain dealers, cloth merchants, and other traders have guilds which regulate their trade customs; but there is nothing peculiar in the trade institutions of this district, which is more backward than those of the Doáb and eastern divisions.

17. *Village communities*.—The villages in this district, as in nearly all in the North-West, may be classified into three kinds, according to the modes in which the land is held and the Government revenue paid:—

Zamindári.—Where the whole of the land belongs to several owners in joint occupation, one (or more) of the owners is usually selected by the rest to

manage the estate and to collect the Government revenue and pay it in to Government; in these villages there are no separate shares of land marked off from the rest, but each proprietor owns a defined proportion of the total produce of the estate.

Imperfect pattidari.—Where the village is partly held by several owners in joint occupation, and partly by several owners in severalty or separate occupation. Here the tenure is partly of the first class and partly of the third class, and each portion is managed as if it were a separate estate belonging to that class.

Pattidari.—Where the land has been completely divided among the sharers, and is held by several owners in severalty, but under one tenure as regards the Government. Here the lands and homesteads are entirely divided off to each owner, but the whole estate remains liable for the Government revenue or any part of it.

There is also a fourth kind of estate called bhaiachára, where, though it belongs to the second or third class, the right and interest of each co-sharer are not determined by his ancestral share, but by custom or possession. In all these classes of estates the settlement of the revenue to be paid to Government is a joint settlement, i.e., all the co-sharers are responsible for the fulfilment of the contract, and all the co-sharers, jointly and severally, and the entire estate are responsible for the whole of the revenue.

Excluding the Pilibhit sub-division, which was not settled with Bareilly, there were 2,570 villages in the district of an average area of 490 acres, and there were 3,326 estates of an average area of 379 acres.

By the 1872 settlement the following percentages of the different kinds of lands were found to exist :—

Unassessed	4.22
	{ Waste	12.17
Assessed	Groves	3.45
	Cultivated	70.09 } 85.71

Out of the 885,998 acres of cultivated land in the district 65,614 were cultivated by the owners; 609,840 acres were held by tenants with rights of occupancy, of which 202,207 had their rents paid in kind, and 407,633 in money; 191,065 acres were held by tenants-at-will, of which 83,907 had their rents paid in kind, and 107,158 in money.

In the thirteen parganahs (excluding the Pilibhit sub-division) the average money-rate of rent per acre varied from Rs. 2-11-11 in Faridpur to Rs. 5-10-3 in Richa, the average of the whole district being Rs. 3-11-1: the percentage of

land cultivated by the owners varied from 3·0 in Chaumahla to 22·3 in Ballia, and the percentage of land held at rents paid in kind to the total tenant-held land varied from 12 in Faridpur to 96·16 in Chaumahla ; so that in that parganah and in Richa (95·45) it may be said that all rents are paid in kind. This system of payment, though cumbrous, has its advantages, as it gives a common interest to the landlord and tenant, and induces the former to help the latter in all emergencies, besides causing him to take a direct interest in the improvement of his land.

18. *Condition of the people.*—Among the Hindus of the district the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the 1st class, or having incomes over £100 a year, £90 to £180 ; (2) for those in the 2nd class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 a year, about £20 to £60 ; and (3) for those in the 3rd class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns it would be rather more, as their habits are somewhat more expensive.

The agricultural classes eat two meals a day—one at midday and another after sunset : for seven months in the year rice in the north and millet in the south parganahs is the staple article of food ; for the remaining five, those who are well off eat wheat, and the rest eat barley. The average expenditure of sugar and sweets for a family of five is 3 mans per annum, costing from Rs. 15 to Rs. 17. The daily average quantity of food taken is the following :—

For a man	...	2·44	lbs. avoirdupois.
„ a woman	...	1·98	„ „
„ a child	...	1·11	„ „

The average of each kind of food per head is as follows :—

Grain	1·85	lbs. avoirdupois.
Dál27	„ „
Salt02	„ „

A man spends about 1s. 3d. a year on salt, about 5s. 6d. on tobacco ; ghi (butter) is got from his own cows, and firewood costs nothing. His clothes will cost him about 5s. per annum, and his wife's 6s., each child will cost about 1s. 3d.¹

19. *Character of the soil.*—The land is divided into up-land and low-land tracts. The latter are formed by the valleys of the Kanhaut, the Deoha, the Baigul, and the Ramganga.

¹ Moens, Settlement Report, p. 55.

There are small isolated patches of low-land along the other rivers, but they are of such small extent as to be of no importance.

The surface of the soil in the higher levels is good alluvial earth, with a subsoil of river sand, which is found at a depth varying from two or three inches to several feet. The lower levels close by the rivers, where the current has more force, are usually composed of pure sand, over which fine mud is gradually deposited in subsequent years.

All the four tracts of low-land are very similar to one another in their general character, that of the Baigul being the best and most productive. It is usually, though not always, found in four distinct levels :—

(1.) The highest, oldest, and furthest removed from inundation. This grows all crops without irrigation, and is extraordinarily productive, usually giving two crops in the year, and sometimes, as in the East Baigul, two or even three crops of sugarcane in succession.

(2.) The land about one or two feet lower than the last, generally similar in character and growing all crops, but far less sugarcane, and with more risk from inundation ; it consequently pays lower rents.

(3.) A still lower level annually inundated in the rains, and consequently growing rabbi crops only, but those of the better kinds.

(4.) The lowest regularly culturable level of all, in which alluvial deposits have been formed imperfectly. This also is annually inundated, and it is more sandy in soil than the last, and grows only masúr, ajwain, linseed, or melons ; the latter only where there is a substratum of clay two or three feet below the sand, from which the roots of the plant can imbibe moisture and nourishment.

In parganahs Karor and Faridpur there is a narrow low-land in which the soil is of most superior quality, growing very fine wheat and sugarcane ; above this on the up-land bank is sand of the poorest quality. North of parganah Karor the up-land on the bank, usually called dhaia, is exceptionally good, while the low-land is poor and sandy.

20. *Course of tillage.*—There are two harvests, the kharif or autumn one, and the rabbi or spring one. The autumn crops are sown in June, directly the first rain falls, and are harvested in October and November, and some of the rice in September, or even as early as the end of August ; but cotton is not ripe for picking till February. Besides cotton and rice, they include bajra, jowar, mot, &c. The spring crops are sown in October and November, and reaped in March and April : they consist of corn, barley, oats, vetch and peas, and dál or

arhar. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both crops ; land is allowed to lie fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it, and, as a rule, spring and autumn crops are not taken off the same land, but sometimes a crop of rice is taken in the autumn, and another crop of some kind in the spring.

The ploughings for the spring harvest commence in Asárh (June), and go on regularly till the middle of Bhádon, when a slight harrowing is given ; then after every ploughing the land is harrowed till Kartik, by which time the land has been ploughed 18 or 20 times, and is perfectly ready for sowing.

For the autumn harvests the ploughings commence as soon as possible after the first fall of rain in Asárh (June). Owing to the abundant rainfall, the regularity of rainfall about Christmas, and the nearness of water to the surface, irrigation is not so necessary as in the Doáb ; and as rents are often paid in kind, cultivators will not go to the trouble of irrigating when they know that they will have to share the resulting profits with their landlords.

21. *Years of scarcity.*—Nothing is known of the scarcities or famines which prevailed in Rohilkhand during the last century, except that occasionally the Muhammadan historians say that after an invasion or a long-continued fight between the Katheriyas and the Musalmáns, or the Afghans and the Imperial troops, much land had been wasted and fallen out of cultivation, and that little grain was left in the place. The great famine of 1783 found Bareilly under the rule of the Nawábs of Oudh, who of course did nothing to mitigate it; but it was never really bad in Rohilkhand. In the famine of 1803 Bareilly was under the then newly imposed British rule, having been ceded in 1801. Very little rain fell during the autumn, and all the crops failed ; disturbances arose, and the landholders, being unable to pay their revenue, absconded in numbers. The famine was at his height in April, and the people fed their bullocks on the dried-up stalks of the spring crops. In 1837-38, the year of the great famine in the Doáb, Rohilkhand felt the lack of rain, but some that fell in February, 1838, saved the spring crops, except in the eastern parganahs. The famine of 1860-61 was severely felt in Rohilkhand, and Bareilly suffered like the other districts. The Budaun and Bareilly road was made as a relief work, but the crops never failed to any considerable extent as they did further west. Budaun suffered frightfully in the spring of 1861, and sent crowds of starving immigrants into Bareilly. In 1868-69 the famine affected Bareilly, but not severely.

22. *Communications and trade.*—The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, enters the district at Fatehganj, east, in parganah Faridpur, and leaves it at

Jangtirah, in parganah Aonla ; its length is 48 miles. There are stations at Fatehganj, 22 miles east of Bareilly, Faridpur 12 miles, at Bareilly, at Basháratganj, 10 miles west, and Aonla, 17 miles west ; only the south-west corner is traversed by this line.

The principal lines of road are :—

(1.) The Bareilly and Fatehgarh road, of which 24 miles are in the district. This runs in a south-east direction and passes through the towns of Faridpur and Fatehganj, at which there are encamping grounds for troops.

(2.) The Bareilly and Moradabad road, of which 24 miles are in this district ; it runs in a north-west direction, and there are encamping grounds at Fatehganj, west, and Mirganj. It crosses the Bhabra river at Sichinia, 12 miles from Bareilly.

(3.) The Bareilly and Budaun road, which runs 21 miles in a southerly direction, crossing the Ramganga at Sirdarnagar ; there is a camping ground at Alampur.

(4.) The Bareilly and Naini Tál road, 35 miles in this district ; it runs due north through the town of Baheri ; there are camping grounds at Bhojhpura, Dioranian, and Baheri ; it passes through the Tarái, and reaches the foot of the hills at Ranibagh.

(5.) The Bareilly and Pilibhit road, 30 miles north-east through Nawabganj and Hafizganj ; there are camping grounds at Rathora and Nawabganj, and the road crosses the Kailas river at Nawabganj, 18 miles from Bareilly.

(6.) The Bareilly and Chandausi road, running 22 miles due west through Aonla and Bisauli.

All, except the last, are metalled, and are important lines of traffic : they are all bridged.

The secondary roads are :—

(1.) Aonla and Budaun road, 17 miles due south.

(2.) Bareilly and Bisalpur road, 28 miles due east.

(3.) Pilibhit, Bisalpur, and Sháhjabánpur road, 30 miles due south.

(4.) Shahi and Baheri road, 19 miles north-east.

(5.) Shahi and Shishgarh road, 24 miles.

(6.) Faridpur and Puranpur, 44 miles.

Nos. 2 and 3 are bridged ; the rest are not, and are impassable in the rains. The part of the district north of Bareilly is so cut up by nallahs, streams, &c., that it can only be traversed by the main roads in the rains. The badness of the roads is due to the scarcity of kankar, and the impossibility of supplying its place by anything else.

Trade.—The main bazars of the district are at Bareilly and Pilibhit, but besides these there are 146 village bazars scattered about the country ; they are usually held twice a week, and they serve to carry off the cotton and grain of the neighbouring country which is bought up by the Banjaras and others, and carried into Bareilly, Pilibhit, Rámpur, and Chandausi. They also supply the villages with cloths, metal pots, and pedlars' wares. The landholders take a small tax from each shopkeeper, pedlar, or grain seller at these bazars : in Bilsanda this brings in £150 a year, and in Gunhan in Richa £80. There are about 16 cattle marts in the district, of which 7 are in parganah Baheri.

In 1805, 92·3 lbs. of wheat and 135·2 lbs. of barley sold for the rupee ; in 1831 only 77·6 lbs. of wheat and 120·5 lbs. of barley were the equivalent of a rupee ; while in 1859, 99·1 lbs. of wheat and 160 lbs. of barley could be obtained for a rupee.

The wages for agricultural labour are 3d. per day, or nine times less than in England : the rate of interest on agricultural loans is 25 to 37 per cent., while in England it is 4 to 6 per cent. ; this accounts for the average rent being 7s. 2d. an acre in Bareilly, while it is 35s. in England.

23. *Money-lending, wages, and prices.*—The rates of interest at present (1877) charged in the district are as follows :—

- (a.) In small transactions, when articles are pawned, from 12 to 15 per cent.
- (b.) In small transactions, when personal security is given, from 18 to 37 per cent.
- (c.) In large transactions, when jewels, &c., are pledged, from 6 to 12 per cent.
- (d.) When bankers lend money to bankers on personal security, 6 to 9 per cent.
- (e.) When land is mortgaged, from 9 to 18 per cent.

The interest on agricultural loans is from 25 to 37 per cent.

The rates of wages are as follows :—

- (a.) Coolies and unskilled town labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ pence a day.
- (b.) Agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 pence a day.
- (c.) Bricklayers and carpenters, 6 pence to 2 shillings a day.

A hired ploughman gets 4s. to 5s. a month.

Female labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men.

Boys of from 12 to 16 get two-thirds of the wages of full-grown men ; boys younger than that and girls from one-half to one-third.

The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were as follows :—

	Number of seers (2lbs.) for a rupee (2s.)				
	1st April.	1st August.	1st December.	Average.	
Wheat	27	24	24
Rice	7	7	7
Jowár	35	25	32
Bajra	33	25	30
Dál	33	25	27

Prices have increased steadily, as is shown by the following :—

Averages.	1.	2.	3.	Increase per cent. from 1 to 2.	Increase per cent. from 2 to 3.	Increase per cent. from 1 to 3.
	1805-31.	1832-59.	1860-71.			
Wheat	...	87·0	77·8	56·1	10·57	27·89
Barley	...	145·3	124·5	86·1	13·62	30·84
Bajra	...	106·1	102·5	67·0	3·39	34·63

The figures denote the number of pounds which sold for a rupee, and they show that there has been a rise in price in all grains ; that the chief rise has been since 1859 ; that the rise has been greater in barley and bajra than in wheat. The rise is due to the cantonment of European troops in the district, the large public works carried on, the great improvement in communications, the famines in other provinces, and the increased cultivation of cotton and sugar-cane.

24. *History.*—In the earliest times the country east of the Ganges (Rohilkhand) was called Kather, but when Sambhal and Budaun were made separate governments by the Musalmáns, this term was restricted to the country east of the Ramganga. In 714 A.D. Kather was under Rám the Pramár, the Chakwa lord of Ujain, and he gave it to Kehar, according to Chánd. The Bachul Rajputs settled in it about 1000 A.D., but they never crossed the Kanhaut river. In 1405 the Jangháras entered Bisalpur and expelled the Ahirs, and in 1570 they captured Deuria and Garhakhera from the Banjáras and Bhils, and expelled them from the surrounding country. The central part of the district between the Deoha and the Kanhaut was occupied by Ahirs and Bhuinhárs till they were conquered by the Katheriyas about 1400 A.D.

The highly civilized Aryan race which occupied the district from about 700 to 1000 A.D. seem to have been overwhelmed and driven out by Ahirs from the Nepál hills, Bhils from the jangals to the south, and the Bhars from the forests of Oudh, just as their brethren the Surajbansis were from Ajudhia.¹

About 1200 A.D. the greater part of the district had relapsed to forest; there were a few Ahirs in the south, some Bhuihárs and Bhils in the north and east, and the Katheriyas west of the Ramganga.

Shaháb-ud-din or his general, Kutb-ud-din, captured Bangarh or Ahichhatra about 1194, but nothing more is heard of the Muhammadans in the district till in 1252 Mahmud II. marched along the foot of the hills to the Ramganga, and in 1266 Ghaias-ud-din Balban, who had succeeded him, marched to Kampil, and remained there six months, putting all the Hindús to the sword, and utterly crushing the Katheriyas, who had hitherto lived by violence and plundering.

In 1290 Sultan Firoz invaded Kather again and subdued them still further, but in 1308 Ali Beg invaded Rohilkhand as a rebel. He was, however, defeated and slain, and the Musalmán supremacy was maintained more or less till in 1345 the governor of Sambhal revolted, but he was subdued by the governor of Oudh. In 1380 Khirgu, the chief of Kather, murdered the governor of Budaun, and the Emperor Firoz III. marched against him and ravaged the whole country. Khirgu escaped to the hills, and in 1420 he, or his brother Hari Singh, taking advantage of the confusion caused by Timur's invasion, reconquered Kather and drove out the Ahirs. The Katheriyas extended their rule west to Aonla till in 1401 Ikbal Khan, and in 1410 Mahmud III., made expeditions against them, and their chief, Nur Singh, submitted. In 1414 he rebelled again, but was defeated at Aonla and the country devastated. He agreed to pay tribute, and was restored to his domains.

He soon rebelled again, and Khizr Khan, the emperor himself, marched against him, defeated him near Aonla, and reduced the country to order. In 1422 the Katheriyas were completely subdued by the new emperor, Mubarik Shah, and in 1424 Nur Singh himself submitted, and the country after this remained at peace for many years.

In 1553 a Katheriya Rája, Mittar Sen, was appointed governor of Sambhal, a post afterwards held by the Emperor Humaiun before his accession, and in 1580, on being superseded, he rebelled, but was defeated in a great battle at Kundarkhi.

Bareilly itself was founded by Bas Deo and Barel Deo in 1537 ; and in 1568 Bareilly and Sambhal were given as feofs to Hussen Kuli Khan.

¹Moens' Settlement Report.

In 1627 Sultan Ali Khan, and in 1628 Ali Kuli Khan were governors of Bareilly, and it had developed into a large place. In 1657 Rája Makrand Rai founded the new city of Bareilly, cut down the forest to the west of the old one, and expelled all the Katheriyas from Bareilly. There was now a succession of regular governors at Bareilly till 1707, when the Emperor Alamgir died. The Hindús then threw off the yoke, refused to pay tribute, and began fighting among themselves, till Ali Muhammad Khan rose into power at the head of his Rohilla Patháns. He was attacked by the governors of Bareilly and Moradabad, but defeated them on the river Aril, and was finally appointed governor of Sambhal, Moradabad, and Sháhjahánpur, which were all united under him.

In 1744 he conquered Kumaun right up to Almora, but in 1746 the Emperor Muhammad Shah marched against him, and Ali Muhammad was forced to surrender, and was taken a prisoner to Dehli. He was soon forgiven and appointed governor of Sirhind, and in 1750 was again sent to Kather as governor, but he died in 1751, and was buried at Aonla. He was succeeded by Hafiz Rahmat Khan, who was guardian to his sons : the emperor refused to acknowledge him, and sent the Nawáb of Farukhabad against him, but he defeated and slew the latter and annexed four of his parganahs in Budaun. He then appointed Fateh Khan Khansamah governor of Budaun, and himself marched north, conquering Pilibhit and the Tarái. The Oudh Vazir, Nawáb Safdar Jang, plundered the property of the Farukhabad Nawáb after his death, and this led to the union of the Rohilla Afghans with the Farukhabad ones, and Hafiz helping the latter, they defeated Safdar Jang and took Farukhabad and besieged Allahabad, while the Rohillas took part of Oudh. But Safdar Jang called in the Marhattas, and with them defeated the Rohillas at Bisauli, near Aonla. He besieged them for four months at the foot of the hills, but owing to the invasion of Ahmad Shah Duráni, he came to terms with them, and Hafiz was made governor of Pilibhit. Faiz-ulla Khan, Ali Muhammad's son, being released by the emperor, came to live with Hafiz at Bareilly in 1753, and in 1754 Shuja-ud-daula succeeded Safdar Jang as Vazir of Oudh.

Hafiz now joined the Imperial forces under Alamgir II. and attacked Shuja-ud-daula, who bought them off with five lakhs.

When Ahmad Shah Duráni invaded the Doáb, Hafiz at once joined him and went to Dehli. After the battle of Panipat his son, Inayat Khan, was appointed governor of Etawah, and in 1763 he and Hafiz completely subdued the district. In 1764 Inayat marched with Shuja-ud-daula to Patna to oppose the English, and in this year a great fire broke out which consumed half

Bareilly, and this was succeeded by an earthquake. After the battle of Buxar in October, 1764, Shuja-ud-daula took refuge with Hafiz at Bareilly and tried to get the Rohillas to join him, but they refused. He then called in the Marhattas, but was utterly defeated at Korah in May, 1765. In 1769 Hafiz, who had governed nearly all Rohilkhand during this time, fortified Pilibhit, founded Hafizganj, and strengthened himself generally. In 1770 Najib-ud-daula advanced with the Marhatta army under Sindhia and Holkar. Hafiz was defeated, and gave up Etawah. Soon afterwards they defeated Zabita Khan at Najibabad (see "Bijnor"), and all the Rohillas asked Shuja-ud-daula's assistance. He became surety for the bond for forty lakhs which they signed, and the Marhattas left Rohilkhand; but the Rohillas could not pay the bond, and Shuja-ud-daula, after getting rid of the Marhattas with the assistance of the Rohillas, and after promising to cancel the bond, attacked the Rohillas with the help of the English under General Champion, defeated them, and took Rohilkhand, Hafiz Rahmat being slain (see also "Bijnor" and "Budaun").

Faiz-ulla, the son of Ali Muhammad, escaped, and became the leader of the Rohillas. After many negotiations he made a treaty with Shuja-ud-daula at Lal Dhang, in Bijnor, on 25th October, 1774, by which he agreed to keep nine parganahs and fifteen lakhs a year, and give up all else to Shuja-ud-daula, promising not to keep more than 5,000 troops. The Nawab Saadat Ali was appointed governor of Bareilly under the Oudh Vazir. Asaf-ud-daula succeeded his father, Shuja-ud-daula, as Vazir of Oudh in 1775, and pensioned Hafiz Rahmat's family in 1776. He also removed Saadat Ali from the governorship of Bareilly, and appointed Surat Singh, his father-in-law. In 1782 Faiz-ulla Khan commuted his agreement to furnish 5,000 horse to the Vazir into a payment of fifteen lakhs, and he was confirmed in possession of Rámpur. Faiz-ulla died in 1794, and on the sons quarrelling and one murdering the other, Asaf-ud-daula sent a force under General Abercrombie against the Rohillas. He defeated them at Mirganj in October, 1794, and Faiz-ulla's remaining son, Ghulám Muhammad, was sent a prisoner to Benares. Half Faiz-ulla's territory was resumed by the Vazir, and the rest was given to Ahmad Ali, Faiz-ulla's grandson by the murdered son. Between 1794 and 1798 the Gurkhas made several incursions into northern Rohilkhand. Asaf-ud-daula died, and was succeeded by Saadat Ali on the 1st of January, 1798: he governed badly, and large tracts of land fell out of cultivation.

On the 10th of November, 1801, Rohilkhand, with Allahabad and Korah, was ceded to the English by the Oudh Vazir, and Mr. Henry Wellesley, brother of the Governor-General, was appointed president of the board of commissioners sitting at Bareilly.

In 1805 Amír Khan, a Rohilla adventurer, made an inroad into Rohilkhand, but was defeated and driven off. Things then remained quiet till 1816, when, during the discontent about the land revenue and a house-tax, the people of Bareilly rose in rebellion under Mufti Muhammad Ewaz, but they were defeated and their leaders banished to Tonk. With the exception of émeutes in 1837 and 1842, peace was not again disturbed till 1857, when the troops mutinied on the 31st May. The European officers, except three, escaped to Naini Tál, and Khan Bahádur Khan, Hafiz Rahmat's grandson, was proclaimed Nawáb Názim of Rohilkhand. On the 11th June the sipahis went off to Dehli, and Khan Bahádur organized a government in July. He sent an expedition against Naini Tál, but it returned from Baheri, and early in October he sent another which burnt Haldwani, but was then defeated by the force sent down from Naini Tál. At the end of October he sent a third, which was utterly routed, and he then heard of the fall of Dehli. Walídád Khan, the rebel leader in Bulandshahr, and the Nawáb of Fatehghar took refuge with him, and he sent a fourth expedition against Naini Tál, which was equally unsuccessful. On the 25th of March the Náná Sáhib arrived in his flight from Oudh, and he remained there till the end of April; but when the commander-in-chief marched on Jalálábád he fled back again into Oudh. On the fall of Lucknow, Firoz Shah fled to Bareilly, and took Moradabad on April 22nd, 1858, but he had to give it up at once, and returned to Bareilly. The Nawáb of Najibábád, leader of the Bijnor rebels, arrived at Bareilly in April, so that all the chief rebels were congregated there when the English army arrived on the 5th of May. The city was taken and the rebels completely defeated on the 7th, and all the chiefs fled with Khan Bahádur into Oudh.

25. *Administration*.—In the time of Akbar, Rohilkhand or Kather was divided into two Sirkars (Budaun and Sambhal) and sixty parganas. Of these last nine now constitute the district of Bareilly. On the cession of Rohilkhand to the English in 1801, it was divided into two districts, Bareilly and Moradabad. In 1813 Sháhjahánpur was made a separate district, and in 1821 Budaun. In 1817 Bijnor was separated from Moradabad, and in 1858 the Tarái from Bareilly: in this way the six districts now constituting the Rohilkhand division were formed. In 1861, 133 mauzas were added to the Rámpur territory as a reward to the Nawáb for his services in the mutiny.

(a.) *Revenue and Criminal*.—Bareilly is the headquarters of a revenue division, under the control of a commissioner, who has the supervision of all revenue and police matters; this comprises the districts of Bijnor, Moradabad, Tarái, Budaun, Bareilly, and Sháhjahánpur. The district staff generally consists

of a magistrate and collector, two joint magistrates, two assistant magistrates (one stationed at Pilibhit), and one deputy collector and magistrate (uncovenanted).

There are eight tahsildars or sub-magistrates and sub-collectors, and eight special magistrates (honorary) with local powers. Of these, the magistrate, joint magistrates, and one assistant magistrate have 1st class powers; one assistant and the deputy magistrate have 1st or 2nd class; the sub-magistrates have 2nd or 3rd class, and the special magistrates generally 3rd class powers. Besides these there are a district superintendent of police and an assistant superintendent, an inspector of customs, sub-deputy opium agent, and a cantonment magistrate. The superintendent of the central prison also has magisterial powers within the jail. The deputy magistrate, sub-magistrates, and all but one special magistrate are natives, the rest are Europeans.

(b.) *Civil.*—Bareilly is the headquarters of a civil and sessions judge, who also has under him the west half of the district of Budaun, the east half being under the judge of Sháhjahánpur, but the judges hold sessions alternately every two months at Budaun. There is also a sub-judge with the same jurisdiction and four munsifs of Bareilly, suburbs of Bareilly (including tahsílis Baheri, Mirganj, Aonla, and Karor), Bisalpur (including the tahsílis of Bisalpur, Faridpur, and Nawabganj), and of Pilibhit. In 1875 the total cost to the State of the maintenance of these courts (including half Budaun) was £8,348, and the amount realized by court fees and stamps was £13,828. The number of cases decided by each class of courts was as follows in the same year :—

Judge, sub-judge, and munsifs	8,549
Magistrate, joint and assistant magistrates	2,889
Collector, deputy and assistant collectors	2,857

The average value of the property under litigation in the civil courts (including Budaun) was £19-18-0.

(c.) *Police.*—In the year 1875 the total strength of the district regular police force was 1,388. This number consisted of one district superintendent, one assistant superintendent, 169 officers under the rank of inspector, 21 mounted and 1,197 foot constables. The cost of maintaining this force was £14,802. The total strength of the police is one man to every 1·70 square miles, and one man to every 1,085 persons in the total population. The cost of maintenance is equal to £4-18 per square mile, or 2½d. per head of the population.

(d.) *Jails.*—There are at Bareilly three places of confinement for prisoners—(1) the central jail, (2) the district jail, (3) the magistrate's lock-up.

(1). The central jail had in 1875 an average of 1,628 prisoners, of whom 1,592 were males and 36 females. It was under the control of a superintendent (a surgeon), who had under him a jailor and 105 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 40-8.

The average outturn of labour was Rs. 4.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 3,972.

The rate of mortality was 5·34 per cent. of average strength.

(2.) The district jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 620 prisoners, of whom 598 were males and 22 females. It is under the charge of the civil surgeon, who has under him a jailor and 45 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 33-13.

The average outturn of labour was Re. 1.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 118.

The rate of mortality was 2·53 per cent. of average strength.

(3.) The lock-up contained in 1875 a daily average of 51 under-trial prisoners, of whom 49 were males and 2 females.

26. *Revenue and Finance.*—The district local funds amounted in 1875 to £ and the expenditure to £ There are three municipalities in the district ; of these the receipts and expenditure were as follows in 1875 :—

Municipality.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Incidence of taxation per head.
Bareilly	£ 8,683	£ 7,365	Rs. 0 13 8
Bisalpur	433	361	0 5 9
Pilibhit	4,887	4,102	0 11 4

The whole amount of revenue raised in the district, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, in 1876 was or on a population of 1,567,073¹ an incidence per head of shillings : out of this or per cent. of the total receipts, was returned to the district in payment for its administration.

27. *Medical statistics.*—There are seven dispensaries in the district, at Bareilly, the killa (the fort, Raja Lájji's), and purána shahr (old city), all in the station of Bareilly, and at Aonla, Bisalpur, Behari, and Pilibhit. The number of persons treated at these dispensaries during the year 1875 was 66,437, of whom 1,506 were in-door patients and 64,931 out-door. The total receipts were £1,375, and the establishment charges £591.

¹Corrected from 1872 census for five years' increase.

The total number of deaths in the year 1875 was 32,540, or 21.59 per 1,000 of the population; the mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 for the previous six years was 20.94; 31,083 persons were vaccinated, of whom 26,692 were known to have been successfully operated on.

28. *Education.*—There were 572 schools in the district in 1875 with 12,200 scholars, which gives an average area of 5.21 square miles for each school and a percentage of .80 scholars on the total population.

There are eight tahsili schools with an average daily attendance of 469 : in these the education is given both in English and in vernacular. The average cost per head was 5.72.

There are two female schools at Bareilly and one at Pilibhit.

29. *Fairs and Chief Towns.*—A list of the chief towns, with their population, has been given under head 14 ; those with a population above 5,000 are separately noticed here.

- (1.) Bareilly, the chief town of the district, situated on the river Ramganga : it is a large city of 102,982 inhabitants, with a civil and military station : European and native troops are quartered there. Its area is 1,280 square acres : it has 80 persons to the square acre, a municipal income of £7,217, and a rate of taxation of Rs. 0-10-3 per head.
- (2.) Pilibhit, the chief town of the sub-division of that name, situated on the Deoha river, 30 miles north-east of Bareilly. A joint magistrate and assistant superintendent of police reside there. It has a population of 29,840, a municipal income of £3,291, a rate of taxation of Re. 1-1-8, and it occupies an area of 433 square acres, and has 69 persons to the acre.
- (3.) Aonla, the principal town of the tahsili of that name. It is situated on a small branch of the river Aril, called the Nawáb, and is 16 miles south-west of Bareilly. It has a population of 11,153, a municipal income of £183, a rate of taxation of Rs. 0-2-8, an area of 128 square acres, and 87 persons to the acre.
- (4.) Bisalpur, the chief town of the tahsili of that name, is situated three miles east of the river Deoha, and 24 miles east of Bareilly. It has a population of 9,250, a municipal income of £282, a taxation of Rs. 0-4-11, an area of 142 square acres, and 65 persons per acre.

Fairs.—There were 146 village fairs in the district in 1872: of these 18 were in parganah Karor, 17 in Faridpur, 22 in Mirganj, 12 in Richa, 15 in

Nawabgang, and 27 in Bisalpur, the remainder were scattered over the other parganahs in threes and fours.

The two largest country markets are at Bilsanda and at Gunhan in Richa, but Bareilly and Pilibhit have of course the greatest trade. These village fairs are held twice a week, and serve to collect the grain, &c., from the neighbouring villages ; it is bought up by the petty traders and carried off to the larger markets.

30. *Archaeology.*—Bareilly was part of the great Panchala Des, which stretched from the Himalayas to the river Chambal. Of this the capital was Ahichhatra, of which the remains still exist at Ramnagar in Sarauli. The circuit of the walls as they stand at present is $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles : statues and coins are constantly found in it, but it has never been properly explored. About 1433 B.C. Drupada was the king of Panchala, and was conquered by Drona, the teacher of the Panda princes, who, however, gave him back half his kingdom, and he removed from Ahichhatra to Kampil, near Fatehgarh. At Galoria, a few miles off, there is a colossal black statue of Budha. Deval or Devála, about three miles from Dioria in Bisalpur, was another important city ; a long inscription was found there engraved on polished stone, which is now preserved in a temple, along with statues and bas-reliefs which have also been found on the spot. The date of the inscription is 992 A.D. Kabur is another old city, supposed to have been founded by Rája Ben of the Bhils long before the Kathe-riyas came into Rohilkhand.

Lilaun, near Ramnagar, is also an old town, as shown by the great bricks in its large masonry tank. In the south of parganah Karor, extending from Simra Rampura along the old bank of the Ramganga as far as Khalpura, a distance of seven miles, is an almost unbroken line of forts and mounds which are the remains of another old city, even larger than Ahichhatra. Its name was Gwála Prasiddh, and it was probably destroyed by Firoz Tughlak in some of his many incursions into Rohilkhand. There is also an old fort at Pachomi, a few miles east of Gwála Prasiddh.

In the old city of Bareilly the remains of the fort built by Bas Deo and Barel Deo, the founders of Bareilly about 1537 A.D., are still visible. About 1600 Mirza Ainul Mulk, who was then Nazim of Bareilly under Akbar, built the Mirzai Masjid in the old city, and the Mirza-bagh adjoining Madhobari.

In 1657 Rája Makrand Rai built the Jamma Masjid and a large fort on the Dioranian river, and founded the new city of Bareilly.

In 1751 the Rohilla leader, Ali Muhammad, died, and a splendid tomb was erected to him at Aonla, which still exists.

The brick wall at Pilibhit and the mud fort at Jahanabad were built by Háfiz Rahmat Khan in 1769.

B A S T I.

B A S T I.

A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. *Position and area.*—The district of Basti—bounded on the north by the territory of Nipál, on the east by the district of Gorakhpur, on the south by the Oudh district of Faizábád, and on the west by the Oudh district of Gonda—lies between north latitude $26^{\circ} 23' 0''$ and $27^{\circ} 30' 0''$, and east longitude $82^{\circ} 17' 0''$ and $83^{\circ} 19' 30''$, and contains an area of 2,789 square miles and a population of 1,473,029, or 528 to the square mile.

2. *Sub-divisions.*—The district is divided into five tahsílis or sub-collectories and eight parganahs, as follows, proceeding from north to south :—

Tahsíl.	Parganah.	Revenue, 1876.
		£
1. Domariaganj ...	1. Rasúlpur Ghaus ... 2. Ratanpur Bansi ...	15,298 11,215
2. Bansi ...	3. Ratanpur Bansi ... Binayakpur, west	22,607 1,747
3. Haraia ...	4. Amorha ... 5. Aurangabad Nagar 6. Mansúnagar Basti	16,292 5,434 5,679
4. Basti ...	Aurangabad Nagar Mansúnagar Basti 7. Hassanpur Maghar 8. Maholi ...	5,641 9,819 5,388 7,476
5. Khalilabad ...	Hassanpur Maghar Maholi ...	16,073 9,385
	Total	132,008

3. *Physical geography and boundaries.*—The whole of the district lies between the Nipálese hills and the great river Ghogra, and has the flat marshy aspect common to submontane countries. The mean height of the district above the sea is only 326 feet, though it is double that number of miles from

the sea, and there are no natural elevations of any description within its boundaries. The whole surface of the country is covered with rivers and marshes, all of which drain more or less consistently towards the south-east.

The district is naturally divided into three portions or belts by the rivers Rapti and Koana. The first is the part lying north of the Rapti and between that and the hills : this is about ten miles broad, and is pure tarai or submontane land which has been gradually reclaimed from the forests and marshes which originally covered it. It is even now so waterlogged as to be suitable for the cultivation of rice only, which is therefore the staple crop of the northern portion of the district.

The second belt of country lies between the Rapti and the Koana, and is consequently better drained by them and their tributaries than the first tract is : the rainfall is less, and the inundations less frequent and serious ; wheat and other cereals are therefore grown in it, and it thereby loses the paludinous aspect of the northern belt. It is from 12 to 20 miles broad.

The third tract lies between the Koana and the Ghogra, and is much drier and more sandy than either of the others. Rice is very little grown, and irrigation is required for the ordinary cereals. This part of the district is very little liable to inundation, as its rainfall drains off freely and rapidly into the two rivers which bound it and into their affluents. The breadth of this tract varies from 28 miles in the west to 12 in the east.

The length of the whole district varies from 52 to 68 miles, and the breadth from 28 to 52 miles : the line of drainage is uniformly from north-west to south-east.

The height above the sea varies from 302 feet to 353 feet, and the average is 326 feet.

4. *Rivers.*—(1.) The Rapti flows through the Gonda district, and reaches this district at Singharjot, in Rasulpur Ghāus parganah ; it thence runs 10 miles due south, forming here the western boundary of the district, which it enters five miles west of Domariaganj ; it flows past that place, and for 30 miles pursues an easterly course till it reaches Bansi, where it turns south-east, and flows on for 25 miles further, till it leaves the district at Kaimaini Ghāt, and enters Gorakhpur. Throughout its course it has two distinct channels, the old one being to the north, and remaining dry, except in the rainy season : it runs through a soft alluvial bed and often changes its course. The Rapti has many tributaries flowing down to it from the Nipál hills, the chief of these are (1) the Arrah, (2) the Bānganga, and (3) the Masdih. There are ferries at Domariaganj and Basti.

(2.) The Ami rises in the west of the district, and flowing south-east across the district for 44 miles, enters the Gorakhpur district, and soon afterwards joins the Rapti. It is bridged where the Bansi and Basti road crosses it.

(3.) The Koana enters this district from that of Gonda, in longitude $82^{\circ} 30'$, latitude $27^{\circ} 9'$, and forms the west boundary of the district for about 16 miles : it then divides parganahs Rasúlpur Ghaus and Hassanpur Maghar from parganahs Mansúrnagar, Basti, and Mahauli for 48 miles. It then flows through parganah Mahauli for 16 miles, and passes into the Gorakhpur district at Bhiosa Bankatia, joining the Ghogra 20 miles lower down. It is bridged at Basti.

(4.) *The Sarju or Ghogra.*—This river forms the southern boundary of the district and divides it from the Faizabad district. It reaches the district just opposite Ajudhia, and runs in a south-east direction for 64 miles till it leaves the district near Belghát, not far from where the Azamgarh and Gorakhpur districts meet. It is a river of great volume and size, and at Ajudhia, Aujhi, Tajipur, Chapra, and other places swells out to a width of from two to three miles. It receives no tributaries in this district, but its stream is rapid, and causes great changes every year in its banks.

It is crossed by two main roads—(1) at Ajudhia Ghát by the road from Gorakhpur and Basti to Faizabad; and (2) at Tánda Ghát by the road from Basti via Kalwári to Tánda, and the Akbarpur railway station.

5. *Lakes.*—These are almost innumerable, and are of all sizes and depths. The whole country is flat and low-lying, so that in the rains every hollow gets filled and forms a temporary lake till it is dried up by the sun in the following spring, or used by the peasants in irrigating their fields. The largest lakes are :—

(1.) Tál Bakhera or Badanah, three miles south of Mendháwal, in parganah Hassanpur Maghar, on the east border of the district. This is the largest lake in the district, and is five miles long and two broad. It is perennial, but only four or five feet deep, and it is embanked at the eastern end.

(2.) Tál Pathra, a little south of the river Rapti, half-way between Domariaganj and Bansi : this is about three miles long, and one to two broad. It is not embanked, and as there is a connection between it and the river, the water in it returns to the latter as the river subsides.

(3.) Chaur Tál, four miles north of Bansi, and three miles north of the Rapti. It is between the latter and the Bánganga, and in the rains communicates with both, but after they are over it is about two miles long and three-quarters of a mile broad.

(4.) Chandu Tál, about nine miles south-west of Basti, and a mile south of the Faizabad road, near the town of Nagar. It is about $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles long and one mile broad.

All these lakes are the haunts of wild fowl, especially the Bakhira Tál; and the Pathra and Chaur Táls are preserved by the Rájá of Bánsi: they are all used for irrigation.

6. *Forests and waste lands.*—The district was at one time almost covered by forest, but little of this remains now, most of it having been cleared by the European grantees to whom waste lands have been assigned.

No valuable timber forests now remain, as all the tree jungle is within Nipál boundaries. There are no ravines, and very few úsar (saltpetre) plains, so that nearly all the land is under cultivation, and no waste lands are now left at the disposal of Government. In the last forty years 109,066 acres have been granted by Government under the rules for the reclamation of waste lands, and nearly the whole of this has been cleared.

7. *Geology.*—The whole district is a flat alluvial tract covered with streams, marshes, and lakes, which still attest its fluviatile or estuarine origin. The most marshy and deltaic portion is the submontane country between the Rapti and the hills.

The alluvial deposits are of unknown depth, and nothing is known of the strata which underlie them.

8. *Climate.*—The climate is exceedingly damp, the rainfall being heavy, and the drainage of the country defective. The rainfall is much heavier in the northern than in the south part of the district, from the proximity of the former to the hills. The extreme ranges of the thermometer were in 1870-72, 71° in January to 105° in May, and 42° in January to 78° in June. Westerly winds blow in the early part of the hot weather, but are soon replaced by easterly ones. The heat is never very intense, as it is tempered by the dampness of the air, and there are no hot west winds. In the winter, however, there is no bracing cold such as there is in the western part of the provinces, and on the whole the climate is feverish and unhealthy. The average rainfall from 1864 to 1871 was 46·05 inches, during which time the maximum was 58·4 inches in 1871, and the minimum 32·6 inches in 1868.

9. *Minerals and trees.*—There are no mineral products in the district, nor is stone quarried anywhere, but kankar (nodular limestone) is occasionally found, though it is more fit for making lime than roads. Shells (*síp*) are found in the beds of most of the rivers, and are used for making lime.

The district is well-wooded, and all the trees common to Upper India are found. The chief are mango, mahuwa, shisham, amaltas, bakain, bargad, imli, gular, sirsa, pipal, &c. (a complete list is given in "Agra"). The sál tree is not found in the district, though abundant in the Nipál forests. The mahuwa berry is distilled, and the spirit resulting from its distillation is largely consumed by the poorer classes.

10. *Animals, birds, and fishes.*—The domestic animals are the ordinary ones of Upper India, but the camel is not used, as the soil is too wet. Elephants are used by those who can afford them, and buffaloes and pack-oxen carry much of the traffic of the villages.

Of wild animals, the wolf, jackal, and pig are common ; deer are unknown, and so are tigers.

Birds are exceedingly abundant, especially water-fowl, of which the pochard, pintail, mallard, spot-bill, grey duck, grey goose, brown goose, bean goose, cotton teal, rain teal, blue-winged teal, grebe, coot, and water-hens are the commonest. These abound on all the large tás or lakes, and afford very good sport.

There are no particular breeds of domestic cattle, except the small breed of parganah Mahauli, which, though below the average size, are specially strong and muscular. Ordinary cows fetch 10 shillings to £5, bullocks for agricultural purposes £1 to £4, and buffaloes 14 shillings to £3.

Fish abound in all the rivers and lakes, and are caught in many different ways—in nets, nooses, and baskets, and by rod and line: they are eaten by all classes, and form a considerable part of the food of many castes, such as malláhs, cháhis, khewats, &c.

11. *Population, &c.*—In the census of 1872 there were 2,789 square miles in the Basti district, with 6,911 mauzas, 248,268 houses, and a population of 1,473,029. There were 528 persons and 2·4 villages to the square mile, 213 persons per village, and 5·9 persons per house. There were 442 masonry houses and 247,826 mud ones.

Of the sexes there were 784,691 males and 688,303 females.

The numbers of each religion and sex were as follows:—

Hindús	... { Males	665,583
	{ Females	581,618
				Total	...	<u>1,247,201</u>
Musalmáns,	{ Males	119,102
	{ Females	106,682
				Total	...	<u>225,784</u>

Christians,	Males	6
	Females	3	
	Total	9		

The percentages of each sex and religion on the total population were as follows :—

Hindús	84.7	Males	53.2
Musalmáns	15.3	Females	46.8

There were 3.4 persons per cent. above sixty years of age, and 5,139 males able to read and write. The total agricultural population was 1,161,384. The area of assessed land was 2,717 square miles, of which 374 were uncultivable, 513 cultivable, and 1,830 cultivated, and there were besides 7 square miles of uncultivable unassessed land. The amount of land revenue was £133,097, the rates and cesses on land £13,221, and the incidence of the land revenue per culturable acre was Rs. 0-14-2. The percentage of agricultural on total population was 78.8. The numbers of the chief Hindu castes and Musalmán tribes were as follows :—

Hindús	Brahmans	173,056
	Rajpúts	44,247
	Banials	44,757
	Ahírs	158,184
	Chamárs	205,658
	Kaiaths	18,581
	Kurmis	113,154
	Shekhs	30,982
	Saiads	3,982
Musalmáns,	Moghals	1,301
	Patháns	28,292

The numbers of males above fifteen in each of the six great classes of occupations were :—

Professional	5,230
Domestic	21,913
Commercial	11,230
Agricultural	356,542
Industrial	34,988
Indefinite	37,296
				Total	...	467,199

There were altogether 6,911 inhabited villages and towns, of which 4,408 contained less than 200 inhabitants, 2,073 less than 500, 340 less than 1,000, 66 less than 2,000, 10 less than 3,000, 12 less than 5,000, and 2 less than 10,000.

The following figures show the area, population, &c., in the three censuses of 1853, 1865, and 1872:—

Area.—This was 2,779 square miles in 1853, 2,800 in 1865, and 2,889 in 1872: it therefore increased by 21, or .7 per cent., in the first twelve years, and by 89 square miles, or 3·2 per cent., in the latter seven years, and increased by 110, or 3·9 per cent., or .2 per cent. per annum on the whole nineteen years.

Population.—The total population was 1,271,473 in 1853, 1,416,905 in 1865, and 1,473,029 in 1872: it therefore increased by 145,432, or 11·4 per cent., from 1853 to 1865; by 56,124, or 3·9 per cent., from 1865 to 1872; and by 201,556, or 15·8 per cent., from 1853 to 1872. We therefore find that it increased at the rate of .9 per annum in the first period, .5 in the second, and .8 on the whole.

Sex.—There were of males in 1853, 664,993; in 1865, 747,964; in 1872, 784,691: they therefore increased in the first period by 82,971, or 12·4 per cent., and in the second period by 36,727, or 4·9 per cent., and in the whole period by 119,698, or 18·1 per cent.

There were of females in 1853, 606,480; in 1865, 668,934; in 1872, 688,303: they therefore increased in the first period by 62,454, or 10·3 per cent., and increased in the second period by 19,369, or 2·8 per cent., while in the whole nineteen years the increase was 81,823, or 13·4 per cent.

The proportion of males to females was about—

1·09 to 1 in 1853.

1·11 „ 1 „ 1865.

1·14 „ 1 „ 1872.

The proportion of males therefore slightly, but steadily, increased throughout both periods.

The males increased in the first period by 12·4 per cent., 4·9 in the second, and 18·1 on the whole. The females increased in the first period by 10·3 per cent., 2·8 per cent. in the second, 13·4 per cent. on the whole. So that in both the first and second periods the males increased 2 per cent. quicker than the females, while on the whole period they increased 5 per cent. quicker.

The annual rates were—

	<i>Increase per cent.</i>		<i>Decrease per cent.</i>	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
In the first period	1·03	.8
In the second period	.7	.4
In the whole period	.9	.7

12. *Religion.*—There were of Hindús in 1853, 1,118,670; in 1865, 1,245,412; and in 1872, 1,247,201: they therefore increased in the first period by 126,742, or 11·3 per cent., and in the second period by 1,789, or 1 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 128,531, or 11·4 per cent.

There were of Musalmáns in 1853, 152,796; in 1865, 170,842; in 1872, 225,784: they therefore increased in the first period by 18,046, or 11·8 per cent., and in the second period by 54,942, or 32·1 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 72,988, or 47·7 per cent.

The proportion of Hindús to Musalmáns was—

7·32 to 1 in 1853.

7·29 „ 1 „ 1865.

5·52 „ 1 „ 1872.

The proportions of the two therefore remained about the same during the first period, but that of the Musalmáns increased considerably in the second.

The Hindús increased by 11·3 and 1, or 11·4 on the whole. The Musalmáns increased by 11·8 and 32·1, or 47·7 on the whole. So that in the first period both increased at about the same rate, but in the second period the Hindús only increased one-tenth per cent., while the Musalmáns increased 32 per cent., and on the whole the Hindús only increased one-fourth as fast as the Musalmáns.

The annual rates were—

	<i>Increase per cent.</i>		<i>Decrease per cent.</i>	
	Hindús.	Musalmáns.	Hindús.	Musalmáns.
In the first period	..	.9	.9	..
In the second period	..	.01	4·6	..
In the whole period	..	.5	2·5	..

13. *Land revenue.*—In 1853 the land revenue was Rs. 8,78,668, in 1865 Rs. 11,65,458, and in 1872 Rs. 13,30,971: it therefore increased by Rs. 2,86,790, or 32·6 per cent., during the first period, and by Rs. 1,65,513, or 14·2 per cent., during the second period, while the total increase on the whole nineteen years was Rs. 4,52,303, or 51·5 per cent. The increase was therefore 2·7 per cent. per annum from 1853 to 1865, 2·1 per cent. per annum from 1865 to 1872, and 2·7 per cent. per annum in the whole period from 1853 to 1872. The great increase of revenue is of course due to the new settlement, which, though

it was not finally sanctioned till 26th October, 1873, had really come into effect in nearly all the parganahs before 1872.

Number of mauzas.—This was 6,468 in 1853, 6,482 in 1865, and 6,911 in 1872. The mauzas therefore increased by 14, or 2 per cent., from 1853 to 1865, and in the second by 429, or 6·6 per cent., from 1865 to 1872, the total increase being 443, or 6·8 per cent., or 3 per cent. per annum. It is noticeable that in this district, which formed part of Gorakhpur during the first two censuses, the number of mauzas only increased by 6·8 per cent. in the whole period ; while in Gorakhpur itself the increase was 33 per cent., or a third of the whole. The increase in this district is not more than would have been expected, but the great discrepancy between the two districts is difficult to explain.

Persons per square mile.—In 1853 there were 457 persons per square mile ; in 1865, 506 ; in 1872, 528 : the density of population therefore increased by 49, or 10·7 per cent., in the first period of twelve years, or 89 per cent. per annum ; it increased by 22 during the second period of seven years, or by 4·3 per cent., or 6 per cent. per annum, and by 71, or 15·5 per cent., or 82 per cent. per annum in the whole period of nineteen years. This district has therefore the largest increase of any, except the three in the Rohilkhand division, Moradabad, Sháhjahánpur, and Tarái : the increase is half as much again as that of Gorakhpur, and is above the average of any division except Rohilkhand.

The decrease and increase of density in the districts of this division are :—

Azamgarh	10·0 decrease.
Mirzapur	9·7 "
Benares	7·4 "
Gházipur	17·7 "
Gorakhpur	10·8 increase.
Basti	15·5 "
<hr/>					
	Average			...	3·1 decrease.

14. *Town and village population.*—There are no large towns in this district, and only two with populations over 5,000. These are Basti with 5,087 and Mindháwal with 8,124. The population is chiefly agricultural and is scattered very uniformly all over the district in small villages, as out of the 6,911 villages and towns in the district 4,408 contain less than 200 inhabitants, i.e., are mere hamlets, and 6,481 have less than 500 inhabitants, i.e., are quite small villages. There are no fortified or walled towns in the district, and 99·82 per cent. of all the houses are mere mud hovels.

The district lies away from the great centres of activity and commerce and from the lines of railway (though the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway has now come close to it), and is one of the most backward in the province.

15. *Value of house and furniture.*—The cost of building a house of the best class may be considered to be from £150 upwards, of the 2nd class from £15 to £120, and of the third class from £1 to £8.

A trader's house of the better class contains generally about £50 worth of furniture and utensils of all kind. Bedsteads, mattresses, quilts, carpets, and boxes would represent about £30 worth of this, and cooking vessels the remainder.

A well-to-do cultivator owns a few strong boxes and bedsteads and quilts worth about £10, besides cooking vessels worth £5 or £6.

An artizan in middling circumstances possesses one or two bedsteads and quilts, and some drinking and cooking vessels, worth altogether about £3.

A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars and one or two quilts, worth in all 10 shillings to a pound.

As the standard of living and comfort is very low in this district, and there are no large towns to raise it, the value of both houses and furniture is distinctly lower than it would be in the western districts.

16. *Trades-unions.*—As in other districts, there are no organized trades-unions in the English sense of the word, but the powerful caste pancháyats answer very much the same purpose, though they have a much wider field of action than an English trades-union[has.

Goldsmiths, grain dealers, cloth merchants, and other traders have guilds which regulate their trade customs ; but in a backward district like this there is not sufficient trade to give rise to the necessity of trades-unions.

17. *Village communities.*—The villages in this district, as in nearly all in the North-West, may be classified into three kinds, according to the modes in which the land is held and the Government revenue paid :—

Zamindári.—Where the whole of the land belongs to several owners in joint occupation. In these villages there are no separate shares of land marked off from the rest, but each proprietor owns a defined proportion of the total produce of the 'estate.

Imperfect pattidári.—Where the village is partly held by several owners in joint occupation, and partly by several owners in severalty or separate occupation. Here the tenure is partly of the first class and partly of the third class, and each portion is managed as if it were a separate estate belonging to that class.

Pattidári.—Where the land has been completely divided among the sharers, and is held by several owners in severalty, but under one tenure as regards the Government. Here the lands and homesteads are entirely divided off to each owner, but the whole estate remains liable for the Government revenue or any part of it.

There is also a fourth kind of estate called bhaiachára, where, though it belongs to the second or third class, the rights and interest of each co-sharer are not determined by his ancestral share, but by custom or possession.

18. *Condition of the people*.—Among the Hindús of the district the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the 1st class, or having incomes over £100 a year, £90 to £180; (2) for those in the 2nd class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 a year, about £20 to £60; and (3) for those in the 3rd class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns it would be rather more, as their habits are somewhat more expensive.

The people are almost purely agricultural, and their standard of living is very low: they feed chiefly on rice and the cheaper food-grains, and as the cold is never very intense, clothing and shelter are not so necessary as it is further west, and costs them but very little.

The estimated income and expenditure of a cultivator in easy circumstances would be as follows :—

Income.	£			Expenses.	£
Autumn crops 13			Agricultural 19
Spring crops 24			Food 12
Price of cattle and profits on loans ...	11			Clothing ...	6
	<hr/>			Miscellaneous ...	9
Total ...	48			Total ...	46
	<hr/>				<hr/>

and in the case of a poor cultivator they would be about—

	£	S.		£	S.
Price of crops 5	10	Agricultural expenses ...	2	4
Earnings of family 4	0	Food ...	4	8
	<hr/>		Clothing ...	1	0
Total ...	9	10	Miscellaneous ...	1	15
	<hr/>		Total ...	9	7

19. *Character of the soil*.—The soil consists of the three kinds ordinarily found in the North-Western Provinces districts, viz.,—(1) dumat, or clay and sand (loam); (2) bhur or balwa, or sandy; and (3) mattiar, or rich clay.

The nature of the soil in this district changes gradually, but completely, from north to south, and becomes drier and more friable as one proceeds south.

In the northern part beyond the Rapti it is extremely wet and is almost a pure clay : in the portion between the Rapti and the Koana it is somewhat drier, and a certain amount of sand is mixed with the clay, forming a loam : in the third tract south of the Koana the admixture of sand is considerable, the soil is much drier and lighter, and irrigation is required for the winter crops.

The whole of the district is liable to re-assessment for Government revenue, there being no permanently settled estates, except where alienations of the revenue have been made for special purposes as rewards for good service.

20. *Course of tillage.*—There are two harvests, the kharif or autumn one, and the rabbi or spring one. The kharif crops are sown in June, directly the first rain falls, and are harvested in October and November, and some of the rice in September, or even as early as the end of August ; but cotton is not ripe for picking till February. Besides cotton and rice they include bajra, jowar, mot, &c. The rabbi crops are sown in October and November, and reaped in March and April ; they consist of corn, barley, oats, vetch and peas, and dîl or arhar. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both crops, land is allowed to lie fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it, and, as a rule, spring and autumn crops are not taken off the same land, but sometimes a crop of rice is taken in the autumn, and another crop of some kind in the spring.

In the north of the district beyond the river Rapti rice is the staple crop, and very little else is grown : in the part between the Rapti and Koana both rice and spring crops, such as wheat and barley, are grown, and in the portion south of the Koana wheat, barley, peas, &c., are grown to the exclusion of rice.

As the rains are very heavy and last longer than in other districts, the autumn crops are sown rather later, and in consequence are not reaped till November. In other respects the course of tillage is the same as in other districts.

21. *Years of scarcity*—As the district was not separated from Gorakhpur till 1865, it will be necessary to give the account of the famines and scarcities which have visited it under the head of the latter district, for no separate records were kept before 1865. Since the separation of the districts there has been one slight and one severe scarcity, neither amounting to a famine. The first was in 1868-69, when the rainfall was very scanty and the autumn harvest suffered considerably. The second was in 1873-74, when, owing to the deficiency of rain, both the autumn and spring crops failed to a great extent, and relief works

had to be set in operation ; these went on till April and May, 1874, when they were greatly reduced in extent.

22. *Communications and trade.*—There are at present no railways in the district, but the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway runs parallel with the southern border of the district for 40 miles from Faizabad to beyond Akbarpur station, and there are four stations on this portion of the line—Faizabad, Nárá, Goshainganj, and Akbarpur—which are from 4 to 12 miles from the boundary of the district. From two of these—Faizabad and Akbarpur—good roads run into the district. The chief roads are :—

(1.) Gorakhpur to Faizabad *via* Basti, 83 miles, of which 62 are in this district. It runs nearly due west and east, and is metalled and bridged throughout, except where it crosses the Ghogra at Faizabad.

(2.) From Basti *via* Bhánpur and Domariaganj to Singarjot, where the Rapti river enters the district; this runs due north for 30 miles, and then north-west for 12 miles, or 42 in all.

(3.) The Basti and Nipál road *via* Bánsi, 55 miles in this district, running north-north-east.

(4.) From Basti to Mendháwal, 24 miles north-east.

(5.) From Basti to Tánda Ghát on the Ghogra, 18 miles due south. This is continued in the Faizabad district from Tánda to Akbarpur railway station, 10 miles further south.

The trade of the district is chiefly with Faizabad and Azamgarh, and consists to a great extent in exchanging the cotton, cotton-stuffs, brass, &c., of Cawnpore and the Doáb districts with the drugs, iron, copper, timber, &c., of Nipál.

There are no trade marts of any importance, and Mendháwal, in the east of the district, is the only place worthy of the name of a trading town.

The district itself produces sugar, indigo, hides, saltpetre, charcoal, and native cloth, and imports cotton, timber, drugs, and iron.

23. *Money-lending, wages, and prices.*—The rates of interest at present (1877) charged in the district are as follows :—

- (a.) In small transactions, when articles are pawned, from 10 to 12 per cent.
- (b.) In small transactions, when personal security is given, from 16 to 37 per cent.
- (c.) In large transactions, when jewels, &c., are pledged, from 6 to 12 per cent.

(d.) When bankers lend money to bankers on personal security, 6 to 9 per cent.

(e.) When land is mortgaged, from 9 to 18 per cent.

The rates of wages are as follows :—

(a.) Coolies and unskilled town labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ pence a day.

(b.) Agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 pence a day.

(c.) Bricklayers and carpenters, 6 pence to 2 shillings a day.

Female labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men.

Boys of from 12 to 16 get two-thirds of the wages of full-grown men; boys younger than that and girls from one-half to one-third.

The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were as follows :—

					<i>Number of seers (2lbs.) for a rupee (2s.)</i>			
					1st April.	1st August.	1st December.	Average.
Wheat	27	26	24	26
Rice	15	15	15	15
Jowar
Bajra
Dál	25	27	26	26

Prices have been rather less affected in this district than in others more centrally situated and nearer the main lines of railway, but even here they are rising steadily, and are considerably higher than they were before the mutiny.

24. *History.*—The whole district formed part of the Subah of Oudh in the Musalmán times, and was in the Sirkar of Gorakhpur, except parganah Amorha, which was in the Sirkar of Oudh.

This district formed part of the district of Gorakhpur up to 1865, when the western part of the old district was formed into a separate district under the name of Basti.

Basti has therefore no history separate from Gorakhpur, and the history of the whole tract of country north of the river Ghogra and between Oudh and Behar will be given under the head of "Gorakhpur."

25. *Administration.*—Basti is one of the six districts which form the Benares division, and in revenue and police matters is controlled by the commissioner of Benares.

(a.) The civil administration is under the judge of Gorakhpur, who also has criminal appellate powers over this district, and who has under him two

munsifs or primary native civil courts, one at Basti, the other at Bânsi. The sub-judge of Gorakhpur also has jurisdiction over this district.

(b.) *Revenue and Criminal*.—These departments are supervised by a magistrate and collector, who generally has a joint magistrate, an assistant magistrate, and a deputy magistrate to assist him. There are also five tahsildars or sub-magistrates and one special magistrate. Of these, the magistrate, joint, assistant, and special magistrate are Europeans, and the rest natives. The magistrate and joint magistrate have 1st class powers, the assistant and deputy either 1st or 2nd class, and the sub-magistrates and special magistrate either 2nd or 3rd class. There are also a district superintendent of police, a sub-deputy opium agent and his assistant, and a civil surgeon.

The number of cases decided by each class of courts was—

Magistrates and assistants	1,694
Collectors and assistants	826

The civil cases are included in the returns for Gorakhpur.

(c.) *Police*.—In the year 1875 the total strength of the district regular police force was 438. This number consisted of 1 district superintendent, 88 officers under the rank of inspector, 14 mounted and 335 foot constables. The cost of maintaining this force was £6,416. The total strength of the police is one man to every 6·65 square miles, and one man to every 3,363 persons in the total population. The cost of maintenance is equal to £2·2 per square mile, or 1d. per head of the population. In 1871 there were 2,000 chaukidars or village watchmen, or one to every 700 inhabitants.

(d.) *Jails*.—There are a district jail and a magistrate's lock-up at Basti, besides the ordinary police and tahsili lock-ups.

(1.) The district jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 408 prisoners, of whom 393 were males and 15 females. It is under the charge of the civil surgeon, who has under him a jailor and 25 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 33-12.

The average outturn of labour was Re. 1.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 258

The rate of mortality was 1·96 per cent. of average strength.

The lock-up contained in 1875 a daily average of 51 under-trial prisoners, of whom 49 were males and 2 females.

(e.) *Postal and Telegraph*.—There are 8 imperial and 14 district post-offices in Basti. There are no telegraph offices, but messages are sent by post from Faizabad.

26. *Revenue and Finance.*—The district local funds amounted in 1875 to £ and the expenditure to £ There is no municipality in the district.

The whole amount of revenue raised in the district, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, in 1876 was £ or on a population of 1,531,914¹ an incidence per head of shillings: out of this £ or per cent. of the total receipts, was returned to the district in payment for its administration.

The new settlement of the revenue of the district² was commenced in 1859 and finished in 1871. It has resulted in an increase of revenue from £208,259 to £283,418, or by £75,158.

27. *Medical statistics.*—There are four dispensaries in the district, at Basti, Birdpur, Bánsi, and Mendháwal. During the year 1875, 13,819 persons were treated in these dispensaries, of whom 555 were in-door and 13,264 out-door patients. The total receipts were £724, and the total establishment charges were £342.

The total number of deaths in the year 1875 was 20,022, or 13·59 per 1,000 of the population. The mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 for the previous six years was 13·52.

There were 29,964 vaccine operations, of which 28,787 were known to be successful.

28. *Education.*—There were 240 schools in the district in 1875 with 6,547 scholars, which gives an average area of 11·62 square miles for each school, and a percentage of 44 scholars on the total population.

There were five tahsli schools at Básti, Bansi, Mendháwal, Bhánipur, and Haraia at which there were 505 scholars in 1875, of whom 445 were Hindús and 60 Musalmáns. The total cost of these was £157, or 8 shillings a head.

29. *Fairs and Chief Towns.*—The chief towns in the district are :—

(1.) *Basti*, the district headquarters, on the main road between Faizabad and Gorakhpur, 40 miles from the former, 43 from the latter, and on the river Koana. Population 5,087; area 127; population per square acre 40.

(2.) *Bánsi*, on the river Rapti, in parganah Bansi, 30 miles north-north-east of Basti; the seat of the Rájás of Bansi. Population 3,863.

(3.) *Mendháwal*, in parganah Hassanpur Maghar, 30 miles north-east of Basti; it has a large market for iron and drugs from Nipál, which are exchanged for cotton from Cawnpore. Population 8,124; area 180 square acres; popula-

¹ Corrected to 1876. ² Including Gorakhpur.

tion per square acre 45 ; municipal income £214 ; incidence of ditto per head Rs. 0-4-3.

(4.) *Ganeshpur*, 6 miles west of Basti, in parganah Aurangabad Nagar, on the river Koana, the chief place of a large grant of land held by the descendants of a Pindári chief. Population 4,338.

30. *Archæology*.—There are no remains of any archæological importance in this district.

A. COTTERELL TUPP.

20-3-'77.

BENARES.

BENARES.

A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. *Position and area.*—The district of Benares—bounded on the north by the Gházipur and Jaunpur districts, on the west by the Jaunpur and Mirzapur districts, on the south by Mirzapur, and on the east by the Shahabad district of Lower Bengal—lies between north latitude $25^{\circ} 8' 0''$ and $25^{\circ} 34' 30''$, and between east longitude $82^{\circ} 43' 45''$ and $83^{\circ} 32' 30''$, and contains an area of 996 square miles and a population of 794,039, or 797 to the square mile.

2. *Sub-divisions.*—The district is divided into two tahsílis or sub-collectorates, Benares and Chandauli.

Tahsíli.		Revenue in 1876.
		£
Benares	... { Benares proper	48,758
	Gangapur (under Maharajah of Benares)	28,090
Chandauli	12,536
Total	89,384

The Benares tahsili includes the western part of the district, and the Chandauli the eastern. Chandauli is about 16 miles due east from Benares on the Grand Trunk Road, towards Sasseram and Calcutta. The Ganges, in its course through this district, runs nearly north and south, so that the Benares sub-collectorate includes all the part of the district on the north bank of the Ganges, and the Chandauli one all on the south bank.

3. *Physical geography and boundaries.*—This district is in the shape of an irregular parallelogram, about 50 miles long from east to west, and 20 broad from north to south; being thus the smallest district in the North-West Provinces except the Tarái, which has an area of only 919 square miles, while Benares has 996. It is bounded by the Mirzapur, Jaunpur, and Gházipur districts of the North-West Provinces on the southern, western, and northern

sides, and by the Shahabad district of Bengal on the east, and is divided into two nearly equal portions by the river Ganges, the western portion, on the north bank of the river, being rather larger than the eastern portion on the south bank.

The eastern or trans-Ganges part consists of the tahsíli of Chandauli, and contains the parganahs of Barrá, Mahwári, Mawei, Rahlupur, Dhus, Badhwal, Majhwár, and Narwan, in order from west to east. The western or cis-Ganges part consists of the Benares tahsíli, and contains the parganahs of Kol Asla, Pandraha, Kaswar Rája, Kaswar Sirkar, Sultánipur, Katehar, Athgáon, Shiopur, Lohtah, Dihát Amánat, and Jhálupur, in order from west to east.

The Ganges runs right through the middle of the district, and the whole district is an alluvial plain, gradually rising on each side from the bed of the river; it is perfectly level, and its unbroken surface is only disturbed where the ravines of the two small streams, the Barna in the west and the Nand in the north, and those of the river Karmnása in the extreme south in parganah Majhwár, diversify the monotony of the scene with their deep gorges and precipitous clefts.

The boundary of the district on the west side is an irregular line running from a point on the Ganges 10 miles due east of the city of Mirzapur through Sarai Babu, Barwa, Bazar Kálka, where it crosses the Barna river and Anye to a point near Phulpur in the Kole Asla parganah: thence the northern boundary runs eastwards through Shahpur till it strikes the Gumti river at a point between Bhainsa and Sultánipur. The Gumti is thence the boundary till it falls into the Ganges a little west of Saiadpur, and the Ganges itself forms the remainder of the northern boundary. The eastern boundary sweeps in a semicircle from this point, where it leaves the Ganges through Babbura on the East Indian Railway to a point near Nasratpur, where it almost touches the Ganges again, and thence it runs due south to Kakrait on the river Karmnása. That river forms the southern boundary from Kakrait to Gobindipur, 20 miles south-east of the former, and thence the line runs due west to Rahlupur on the Ganges, whence it follows the Ganges for 25 miles to the point east of Mirzapur at which the western boundary left it.

4. *Rivers.*—The Ganges is the only river of any size which passes through this district, though the Karamnása skirts the extreme south-east border in parganah Majhwár, and the river Gumti bounds parganah Katehar on the north. The only other two streams are the Barna and the Nand, both of which are comparatively small.

(1.) The Ganges forms the southern boundary of the district (dividing it from Mirzapur) from a point midway between Mirzapur and Chunár to another point near Rahlupur, three miles west of Benares: in this part of its course it runs due east for ten miles to Chunár, and then north-east to Benares; here it enters the district, and travels right through it from south to north in a course inclining slightly to north-east: it passes the city of Benares (which is on its west bank) and divides parganahs Lohta, Dihát Amánat, Jálhupur, and Katehar on the west from parganahs Rálhupur, Mawei, Mahwári, and Barra on the east. At a point 25 miles north-east of Benares it turns sharply to the east, leaves the district, and forms its northern boundary from the junction of the river Gumti with it to a point ten miles further east, where it leaves the district altogether. The Ganges is of course in this district a very large river; it has been augmented since it left Allahabad by the whole volume of the Jumna; while the Tons, the Burna Nadli, and other smaller streams have contributed their quota to it, till after being joined in this district by the Gumti from the north it flows through the Gházipur district into Lower Bengal, a majestic river often three to four miles broad in the rains.

(2.) The Gumti flows down in a south-easterly direction through the district of Jaunpur, and reaches this district at a point near Sultánipur, 15 miles north of Benares. It flows between the Katehar parganah of this district on the south, and the Khanpur and Saiadpur parganahs of the Gházipur district for about 22 miles, till it falls into the Ganges at a point near Saiadpur and 16 miles north-east of Benares. Just before entering this district it receives the waters of the Sai Naddi, and is here a large stream, though not one of the first magnitude.

(3.) The Karmnásá only passes a very short part of its course in this district; it comes up from the south-east of the Mirzapur district, and running due north, past Magror, it enters this district at Gobindipur, 21 miles south-east of Benares; it thence flows in a north-easterly direction for 34 miles, dividing the parganahs of Majhwár and Narwan from the Bengal district of Shahabad. At Kakrait, 32 miles due east of Benares, it leaves this district, and flows north-east for 30 miles, when it falls into the Ganges at the town of Chausa.

In the Benares district it is a swift stream of some magnitude, and in the rains brings down a large volume of water; but, like most hill streams, it is nearly dry during the hot months, and is subject to sudden and great floods in the rains, when the water-level sometimes rises 30 feet. The breadth of the stream is about 300 feet at Naubatpur, where the Grand Trunk Road crosses it.

(4.) The Barna Naddi. This stream rises on the borders of the Allahabad and Mirzapur districts, and thence forms the boundary between the Jaunpur and Mirzapur districts for 42 miles, when it enters this district at Bazar Kalka, 20 miles north-west of Benares ; it flows in a very devious course, though in a due easterly direction, for 32 miles, till it falls into the Ganges a mile north of the city of Benares. It divides parganah Kaswár from Pandrahá and Athgaon, and parganah Shiopur from Dihát Amánat ; and then, flowing round the civil station and cantonments of Benares, it takes a bend to the north of the city and falls into the Ganges at Share yatábád.

It is a deep swift stream with precipitous banks and numberless ravines running out of it from both sides; all the western half of the district is drained by it except the extreme northern part. It would run dry in the cold weather if the water were not retained in it by a dam built across it a mile from its confluence with the Ganges.

(5.) The Nand Naddi rises on the borders of the Balsi parganah of the Jaunpur district, and the Kol Asla parganah of this district, at a point 22 miles north-west of Benares ; it flows through the Kol Asla and Katehar parganahs, past Phulpur and Bhartara, for 25 miles, till it falls into the Gumti at Bhaurára, about nine miles above where the latter falls into the Ganges. It drains all the northern part of the district, but, except in the height of the rains, is not a stream of any considerable size.

(6.) The only other streams in the district are two small ones called the Gadhei and Chandarpárba Naddis, which unite together in parganah Majhwár, in the extreme south-east of the district, and flow into the Karmnásá at Halua, 22 miles south-east of Benares ; and lastly, the small Hati Naddi in parganah Katehar, which flows into the Gumti.

5. *Lakes.*—The only lakes or jhils of any size in the district are three in the northern part of it, which are more or less permanent ones : these are—

(a) The Barepur jhil, four miles north of Benares and in parganah Shiopur ; this is a very irregularly shaped lake, about a mile from north to south, with long arms stretching out to the west and the south-east.

(b) The Kothjhil, eight miles north-west of Benares in parganah Athgaon ; this is a quadrangular jhil about $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile long and three-fourths of a mile broad.

(c) The Kowar jhil, 18 miles north-west of Benares in parganah Kol Asla : this is a semicircular jhil, with its base towards the Benares road : the base is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile long, and the radius three-fourths of a mile.

6. *Forests and waste lands.*—There are no forests or waste lands of any importance in this district. Tracts covered with úsar or saline efflorescence are not uncommon, and along the banks of the rivers and in the extreme south-east of the district there are patches of forest and jungle, but none sufficiently large to deserve separate description.

7. *Geology.*—The whole district is an alluvial plain formed by the deposits of the river Ganges : these deposits are of unknown depth, but a section of their upper layers generally gives loam 35 feet, blue silt 30 feet, strong clay 20 feet, resting on a water-bed of reddish sand. If Benares includes any rock area in the extreme south-east, it must be Kaimur sandstone only ; but the rock area probably does not come beyond the limits of the Mirzapur district : the exact boundaries of the sandstone area have not yet been accurately ascertained.

8. *Climate.*—The climate is one of the hottest and dampest in the North-West. There is no really cold weather here as there is west of Allahabad, and it is only possible to dispense with pankahs (fans) during December, January, and February. The hot west wind has almost ceased to blow with any force by the time it has reached this district, and the tattis or grass mats for cooling the air are consequently of very little use here.

There is less range of temperature than further west, as the cold weather is warmer and the hot weather not so scorching as in the Doáb. The climate more nearly resembles that of Lower Bengal than that of the rest of the North-Western Provinces. The mean monthly temperature and mean monthly range were as follows in 1870 and 1871 :—

	1870.												
	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Annual mean.
Temperature	... 65	71	80	86	94	92	86	85	85	82	72	64	{ 80
Range	... 37	40	38	40	38	27	22	21	22	29	37	38	{ 80
1871.													
Temperature	... 64	71	79	87	88	88	83	83	82	80	72	62	{ 78
Range	... 35	34	38	36	27	21	15	15	17	31	34	32	{ 78

The average total rainfall from 1860 to 1870 was—

1860-61.	1861-62.	1862-63.	1863-64.	1864-65.	1865-66.	1866-67.	1867-68.	1868-69.
21·6	57·7	52·4	49·5	24·6	40·3	37·7	50·1	28·8
1869-70.	1870-71.							
40·1	46·4							
						or an average of 40·8		

The hot weather begins about the 15th March, and continues till about the 15th June, when the rains set in, and lasts till the 15th October, after which the weather grows cooler, and the cold season lasts during November, January, and February.

9. *Minerals and trees.*—There are no minerals in the district, as the whole is an alluvial plain, and the patches of úsar or reh land from which saltpetre is manufactured are much more rare than they are further west in the Doáb.

No stone is quarried in the district, but kankar or nodular limestone for making lime and metalling roads is common. The trees are the same as those found in the Doáb, viz., the mango (ám), mahúha, shísham, ním, pípal, bargad, amaltás, kachnár, sirsa, ním chameli, bair, lasaura, imli, dhak, and babúl.

10. *Animals and birds.*—All the domestic animals usually found in Northern India exist in this district, but the camel is rare. The cattle used are chiefly of the Utarhá breed from Bahraich in Oudh; but some are of the Purabi breed from Patna. Their price varies from £2 to £8, and for the best trotting bullocks as much as £12 is sometimes paid.

Of wild animals, many of those found further west do not occur, such as the nilgæe and ravine deer, and the antelope is only found where it has been preserved. The maneless lion and the tiger are not found, and the wolf, leopard, and wild boar are less common than in other districts. The hare, wild cat, jackal, fox, neula (mongoose), squirrel, porcupine, and monkey are common.

Wild-fowl of all kinds abound on the rivers and lakes, and partridge, pea-fowl, curlews, and plovers are found.

The fish are the usual ones found in the large rivers, viz., the rahu, bachua, anwári (mullet), pariási, chilua, báon (eel), hilsa, sauri, &c. A few persons earn their living by fishing in the Ganges chiefly to supply the station and city of Benares.

11. *Population, &c.*—In the census of 1872 there were 996 square miles in the district of Benares, with 1,919 mauzas and 156,200 houses, and a population of 794,039. There were 797 persons and 1·9 villages to the square mile, 414 persons per village, and 5 persons per house. There were 18,010 masonry houses and 138,190 mud ones. Of the sexes there were 406,344 males and 387,355 females. The numbers of each religion and sex were as follows :—

Hindús	{ Males	366,097
	{ Females	348,413
				<hr/>
	Total	...	714,510	
Musalmáns	{ Males	40,062
	{ Females	38,782
				<hr/>
	Total	...	78,844	
Christians	{ Males	185
	{ Females	160
				<hr/>
	Total	...	345	

The percentages of each sex and religion on the total population were as follows :—

Hindús	90·0	Males	51·2
Musalmáns	10·0	Females	48·8

There were 2·9 persons above 60 years of age, and 30,688 males able to read and write. The total agricultural population was 319,085. The area of assessed land was 979 square miles, of which 222 were uncultivable, 30 cultivable, and 726 cultivated, and there were besides three square miles of uncultivable unassessed land.

The amount of land revenue was £93,798 and the rates and cesses on land £6,805, and the incidence of the land revenue per culturable acre was Re. 1-13-11. The percentage of agricultural on total population was 43·9.

The numbers of the chief Hindu castes and Musalmán tribes were as follows :—

Hindús	...	{ Brahmáns	90,972
		{ Rajputs	48,169
		{ Banisahs	20,125
		{ Ahirs	71,951
		{ Chamars	83,273
		{ Kayaths	14,769
		{ Kurnmis	74,437
		{ Shekhs	66,577
Musalmáns	...	{ Saiads	2,278
		{ Moghals	1,015
		{ Pathans	8,655

The numbers of males above 15 years in each of the six great classes of occupations were:—

Professional	6,891
Domestic	32,372
Commercial	11,010
Agricultural	116,893
Industrial	41,812
Indefinite	52,830
		Total	...	<u>261,808</u>

There were altogether 1,919 inhabited villages and towns, of which 925 contained less than 200 inhabitants ; 655 less than 500 ; 254 less than 1,000 ; 71 less than 2,000 ; 8 less than 3,000 ; 4 less than 5,000 ; 0 less than 10,000 ; 1 less than 20,000, and 1 above 20,000.

Area.—This was 995 square miles in 1853, and the same in 1865 ; it increased by 1 in 1872, being 996 ; the percentage of increase in the second and in the whole period was therefore 1.

Population.—The total population in 1853 was 851,757 ; in 1865, 799,421 ; in 1872, 794,039 : it therefore decreased by 52,336, or 6·5 per cent., from 1853 to 1865, and by 5,382, or 6 per cent., from 1865 to 1872, and by 57,718, or 7·2 per cent., in the whole nineteen years from 1853 to 1872. We therefore find that it decreased in the former period at the rate of ·54 per annum, and in the latter period by ·08 per annum ; the total decrease was at the rate of ·37 per annum.

Sex.—There were of males in 1853, 444,778 ; in 1865, 417,399 ; in 1872, 406,344 : they therefore decreased in the first period by 27,379, or 6·5 per cent., and in the second period by 11,055, or 2·7 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 38,434, or 9·4 per cent.

There were of females in 1853, 406,979 ; in 1865, 382,022 ; and in 1872, 387,355 : they therefore decreased in the first period by 24,957, or 6·5 per cent., and increased in the second period by 5,333, or 1·4 per cent., while in the whole nineteen years the decrease was 19,624, or 5·0 per cent.

The proportion of males to females was—

1·09 to 1 in 1853

1·09 „ 1 „ 1865

1·04 „ 1 „ 1872

The proportion of the sexes may therefore be said to have remained almost the same throughout the whole period.

The males decreased by 6·5 in the first period, 2·7 in the second, or 9·4 on the whole. The females decreased by 6·5 in the first period, and increased by 1·4 in the second, and decreased by 5·0 on the whole. The two sexes there-

fore decreased at the same rate in the first period, while in the second the males decreased $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., while the females increased $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and on the whole the males decreased nearly twice as fast as the females.

The annual rates were —

	<i>Decrease per cent.</i>		<i>Increase per cent.</i>	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
In the first period54	.54
In the second period3825
In the whole period49	.. .25

Religion.—There were of Hindús in 1853, 769,116; in 1865, 721,684; in 1872, 714,510: they therefore decreased in the first period by 47,432, or 6·5 per cent., and in the second by 7,174, or 1·0 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 54,606, or 7·6 per cent.

There were of Musalmáns in 1853, 82,641; in 1865, 71,593; and in 1872, 78,844: they therefore decreased in the first period by 11,048, or 15·4 per cent., and increased in the second period by 7,251, or 10·1 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years decreased by 3,797, or 4·8 per cent.

The proportion of Hindús to Musalmáns was —

9·30 to 1 in 1853

10·08 „, 1 „, 1865

9·06 „, 1 „, 1872

The proportion of Hindús therefore increased somewhat in the first period, and then fell again in the second.

The Hindús decreased in the first period by 6·5 per cent., and in the second period by 1·0 per cent., or 7·6 on the whole. The Musalmáns decreased in the first period by 15·4 per cent., and increased in the second period by 10·1 per cent., and decreased in the whole period by 4·8 per cent. So that the Musalmáns decreased $2\frac{1}{2}$ times faster than the Hindús in the first period, while they increased 10 per cent. in the second period; the Hindús decreasing one per cent. in the whole period. The Hindús decreased $1\frac{1}{2}$ times as fast as the Musalmáns, a result contrary to that found in most districts.

The annual rates were —

	<i>Decrease per cent.</i>		<i>Increase per cent.</i>	
	Hindús.	Musalmáns.	Hindús.	Musalmáns.
In the first period54	.28
In the second period142515
In the whole period4	.. .25

Land Revenue.—In 1853 the land revenue was Rs. 9,03,358, in 1865 Rs. 9,03,074, in 1872 Rs. 9,07,980 : it therefore decreased by Rs. 284, or '03 per cent. during the first period, and increased by Rs. 4,906, or '5 per cent. during the second, while the total increase on the whole nineteen years was Rs. 4,622, or '5 per cent. The decrease was therefore '02 per cent. per annum from 1853 to 1865, '07 per cent. per annum from 1865 to 1872, and '01 per cent. per annum on the whole period from 1853 to 1872. The revenue therefore remained very stationary, only varying a half per cent. in the whole nineteen years. As the district is permanently settled, the revenue can only vary with an alteration of boundaries, or through alluvion, &c.

Number of mauzas.—This was 2,296 in 1853, 2,307 in 1865, and 1,919 in 1872. The mauzas therefore increased by 11, or '4 per cent., from 1853 to 1865, and diminished by 388, or 20·2 per cent., from 1865 to 1872, the total diminution in number in the whole nineteen years being 377, or 19·6 per cent., or 1·0 per cent. per annum.

Persons per square mile.—In 1853 there were 856 persons per square mile; in 1865, 803 ; in 1872, 797 : the population therefore decreased in density by 53 in the first period of twelve years, or by 6·6 per cent., or '5 per cent. per annum; it decreased by 6 during the second period of seven years, or by '7 per cent., or 1 per cent. per annum; and by 59, or 7·4 per cent., or '4 per cent. per annum in the whole period of nineteen years. The decrease in density was therefore rather under the average which we have as yet found in the districts of this division, though about double the average decrease in the Allahabad division.

14. *Town and village population.*—There are only two towns with a population of more than 5,000 in this district: they are Benares with a population of 175,188, and Rámnagar, close to Benares, with a population of 11,953. Benares is of course a city of the first magnitude, being the largest in the North-Western Provinces, and Rámnagar may be considered almost as a suburb of it; but beyond these two there are no towns of any importance in the district, and the very dense population which inhabits it is scattered over its surface very equally in small villages and hamlets.

Thus out of a total of 1,919 inhabited towns and villages 925, or nearly half, had less than 200 inhabitants, and 1,580, or 82 per cent., had less than 500, so that four-fifths of all the population is scattered about in small villages. This district well illustrates the great difference there is between the western and the eastern districts of the North-Western Provinces. In the western a large proportion of the population is collected in towns which were once walled and which afforded them protection in the days of constant Marhatta raids and

Afghan incursions ; while in the more peaceful eastern districts the population is scattered all about the face of the country, and only a fourth or a fifth of the whole is ever collected in large towns.

15. *Value of house and furniture.*—The cost of building a house of the best class may be considered to be from £200 upwards, of the second class from £15 to £150, and of the third class from £1 to £10.

A trader's house of the better class contains generally about £50 worth of furniture and utensils of all kinds. Bedsteads, mattresses, quilts, carpets, and boxes would represent about £30 worth of this, and cooking vessels the remainder.

A well-to-do cultivator owns a few strong boxes and bedsteads, and quilts worth about £10, besides cooking vessels worth £5 or £6.

An artizan in middling circumstances possesses one or two bedsteads and quilts and some drinking and cooking vessels, worth altogether about £3.

A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars, one or two quilts, and perhaps a bedstead worth in all 10 shillings to a pound.

In the city of Benares itself, from the wealth of its rich traders and bankers, and from the constant influx of wealthy pilgrims, the standard of comfort is decidedly higher than in most North-Western Provinces districts : this tendency is also increased by the large Bengali colony which has settled there, and which brings Calcutta ideas of comfort and Caleutta habits with it, so that houses which might almost be called "furnished" according to a European standard are far more common than in other up-country cities.

16. *Trades-unions.*—As in other districts, there are no organized trades-unions in the English sense of the word, but the powerful caste panchayats answer very much the same purpose, though they have a much wider field of action than an English trades-union has. Cultivators sometimes band together to resist enhancement of their rents, and pay *pro rata* contributions to a general fund. Goldsmiths, grain dealers, cloth merchants, and other traders have guilds which regulate their trade customs ; but, except in the city of Benares itself, anything which could fairly be called a trades-union is unknown. In that city, however, the guilds and caste-unions are unusually strong, from the great wealth and number of their members.

17. *Village communities.*—The villages in this district, as in nearly all in the North-West, may be classified into three kinds, according to the modes in which the land is held and the Government revenue paid :—

Zamindari.—Where the whole of the land belongs to several owners in joint occupation, one (or more) of the owners is usually selected by the rest to

manage the estate and to collect the Government revenue and pay it in to Government. In these villages there are no pattiis or separate shares of land marked off from the rest, but each proprietor owns a defined proportion of the total produce of the estate.

Imperfect pattidari.—Where the village is partly held by several owners in joint occupation, and partly by several owners in severalty or separate occupation. Here the tenure is partly of the first class and partly of the third class, and each portion is managed as if it were a separate estate belonging to that class.

Pattidari.—Where the land has been completely divided among the sharers, and is held by several owners in severalty, but under one tenure as regards the Government. Here the lands and homesteads are entirely divided off to each owner, but the whole estate remains liable for the Government revenue or any part of it.

There is also a fourth kind of mahál or estate called bhaiachára, where, though it belongs to the second or third class, the rights and interest of each co-sharer are not determined by his ancestral share, but by custom or possession. In all these classes of estates the settlement of the revenue to be paid to Government is a joint settlement, *i.e.*, all the co-sharers are responsible for the fulfilment of the contract, and all the co-sharers, jointly and severally, and the entire estate are responsible for the whole of the revenue.

There is nothing specially to be noted about the village communities in this district. The whole district is permanently settled, and the landlords are therefore unusually powerful and wealthy. Being without the fear of a new settlement before their eyes, they can raise their rents in a way which would not be possible in a temporarily settled district, and the number of tenants-at-will is growing larger every day as the class of old tenants, who have a right of occupancy, dies out, either for want of heirs or from being unable to pay their rent.

18. *Condition of the people.*—Among the Hindús of the district (if the classification adopted in the Bombay Gazetteer be accepted) the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the 1st class, or having incomes over £100 a year, £96 to £180; (2) for those in the 2nd class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 a year, about £24 to £60; and (3) for those in the 3rd class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns it would be rather more, as their habits are somewhat more expensive, and in the city of Benares itself rates of living and rents are higher than almost anywhere else.

The district is very thickly populated, having 797 persons to the square mile, and is far more so than any other district in the North-Western Provinces ; Jaunpur being the next with 659, and Gházipur the third with 621. No other district has as many as 600.

This, of course, ensures the mass of the population being in extreme poverty, and, as outside the city of Benares itself they are almost purely agricultural, they have little or nothing to fall back upon in the case of a bad season.

19. *Character of the soil.*—The Benares district contains 996 square miles ; of this all but 17 is assessed. Of the 979 miles of assessed land, 222 is uncultivable, 30 is cultivable, and 726 is cultivated. The soil consists of the three kinds ordinarily found in the Doáb and neighbouring districts, *viz.*, (1) dumat, or clay and sand ; (2) bangar or bhur or balwa, or sandy ; and (3) mat-tiar, rich clay. Where there are a great many small proprietors, the owner often cultivates all, or nearly all, his land himself, but, as a rule, the greater portion is leased to cultivating tenants. There are no details obtainable of the amount cultivated by landlords and that by tenants, as the district is a permanently settled one, and no new settlement has therefore been made since we first took possession of it in 1801.

Most of the soil is a rich clay, more or less mixed with sand : where the proportion of sand is too great or too small the fertility is diminished, but the greater part of the district is very fertile.

20. *Course of tillage.*—There are two harvests, the kharif or autumn one, and the rabi or spring one. The kharif crops are sown in June, directly the first rain falls, and are harvested in October and November, and some of the rice in September, or even as early as the end of August ; but cotton is not ripe for picking till February. Besides cotton and rice, they include bajra, jowar, mot, &c. The rabi crops are sown in October and November, and reaped in March and April ; they consist of corn, barley, oats, vetch and peas, and dál or arhar. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both crops ; land is allowed to be fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it, and, as a rule, spring and autumn crops are not taken off the same land, but sometimes a crop of rice is taken in the autumn, and another crop of some kind in the spring.

The harvests here are a little earlier than in the Doáb and western districts from the dampness and comparative warmth of the winter and from the early setting in of the rains. The autumn crops are here harvested in October, and the spring crops early in March, while in the Upper Doáb and Rohilkhand they are reaped in November and April respectively.

The chief crops in this district are sugarcane, Indian-corn, barley, wheat, peas, indigo, and rice. Mot and patsan are sown with other crops, but not separately.

21. *Years of scarcity.*—In 1770 Benares suffered like all the other districts east of Allahabad, in common with those of Bahár. In 1783 the famine was worst in the west, but Benares, like all other districts west of the Karmanása, suffered more or less and there were grain riots in the city. In 1803 a bounty of Rs. 15 was paid on every 100 mans of grain imported from Bengal into Benares or Allahabad, but the famine was not so severe in Benares as in Rohilkhand and the west.

In 1837-38 the great famine which ravaged the whole North-West was severely felt in Benares, though not so badly as in the Doáb.

In 1860-61 the famine was worst in the Upper Doáb and the Agra division, and was not felt as far east as Benares.

The great Bengal famine of 1874 extended into the Benares division, and was felt, though not severely, in the Benares district.

22. *Communications and trade.*—The chief lines of road in the Benares district are :—

(1.) The road from Benares to Jaunpur, of which 22 miles are in this district: it runs north-west, and is metalled and bridged.

(2.) The Grand Trunk Road from Calcutta to Dehli, of which 44 miles are in this district. It enters the district at Naubatpur, on the river Karamnása, 24 miles east of Benares, passes right through its whole length, crossing the Ganges at Benares, and leaves the district at Sarai Bábu, 24 miles west of Benares. It is metalled and bridged throughout.

(3.) The road to Ahraura, 24 miles due south.

(4.) The road to Sakaldia, 18 miles east.

(5.) The road to Gházipur, 16 miles north-east to the junction of the Ganges and the Gumti, where it crosses the latter river into the Gházipur district.

There are two lines of railroad which traverse the greater part of the district :—

(1.) The East Indian Railway enters on the eastern border at Zamaniah station, and runs for 28 miles through the district south of the Ganges, having two stations at Sakaldia and Moghal Sarai: it also has a branch six miles long from Moghal Sarai to Benares, which ends on the south bank of the Ganges opposite to Benares.

(2.) The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, which commences at Benares on the north bank of the Ganges, and runs north-west for 20 miles, having four stations in the district, viz., Benares, Shiopur, Bábatpur, and Phúlpur.

The trade of Benares is chiefly with Jaunpur and Azamgarh, and the trans-Ghogra districts of Gorakhpur and Basti, as the products of those districts are sent to a great extent through Azamgarh and Jaunpur to Benares, though much traffic goes by Dohrighát, and across the Gházipur district to the East Indian Railway at Buxar.

Benares itself is chiefly known for its metal work, particularly in chased brass, and for its shawls and cloths embroidered in gold and silver.

23. *Money-lending, wages, and prices.*—The bankers and large traders of Benares are chiefly Khattris and Baniahs. They have agencies at Calcutta, Patna, Allahabad, Cawnpore, Mirzapur, Agra, and Háthras, and themselves act as agents for other firms at those places.

The rates of interest at present (1877) charged in the district are as follows :—

- (a) In small transactions, when articles are pawned, from 12 to 15 per cent.
- (b) In small transactions, when personal security is given, from 18 to 37 per cent.
- (c) In large transactions, when jewels, &c., are pledged, from 6 to 12 per cent.
- (d) When land is mortgaged, from 9 to 18 per cent.

The rates of wages are as follows :—

- (a) Coolies and unskilled town labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ pence a day.
- (b) Agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 pence a day.
- (c) Bricklayers and carpenters, 6 pence to 2 shillings a day.

Female labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men ; boys of from 12 to 16 get two-thirds of the wages of full-grown men ; boys younger than that and girls from one-half to one-third.

The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were as follows :—

Grain.	Number of seers (2lbs.) for a rupee (2s.)			
	1st April.	1st August.	1st December.	Average.
Wheat	20	20	21	21
Rice	13	13	15	13
Jowár	20	20
Bájra	30	...	29	29
Dál	19	21	21	20

Prices have risen in this as in all other districts, but Benares is generally well supplied with grain by the great grain-producing districts to the north.

24. *History.*—The district of Benares had no separate history till the family of the present Mahárájá assumed the position of leasers in 1740. The earliest mention of the city is when Sákya Muni, the last Buddha, travelled to Benares from Gaya, when he felt himself inspired, and dwelt for a time at Sárnáth : this was probably in the sixth century B.C.

The present city is, however, modern, most of the buildings dating not later than Akbar's time. During the Musalmán times the district of Benares was under the rule of the Nawabs of Oudh, till it was ceded with Gházipur to the English in 1775. It was first taken from the Hindus by Muhammad Gauri, in 1194. In 1740 Mansa Rám, a landholder of Gangapur, was succeeded by Rájá Balwant Singh, who took a more prominent position than his ancestors did, and who in 1763 joined the Emperor Shah Alam and the Vazir of Oudh, Shuja-ud-daulah, in their invasion of Bengal. After the battle of Buxar, when the Emperor and the Vazir had been defeated by the English, Balwant Singh joined the English camp with the Emperor, the Vazir retreating to Oudh. By the agreement of 1764 Balwant Singh's estates were transferred from Oudh to the English : but the transfer was disapproved by the Court of Directors, and by the treaty of 1765 his estates were given back to Oudh, the Nawáb Vazir agreeing to keep him in possession.

Balwant Singh died in 1770, and the Vazir tried to dispossess the family, but the English compelled him to recongnize Chait Singh, Balwant's son. The civil and criminal administration of the estates was given him, subject to a tribute of £226,618 per annum.

Benares was ceded by the Nawáb Vazir to the English in 1775. In 1778 Rájá Chait Singh was compelled to pay five lakhs of tribute to maintain a battalion of sepoys, and the tribute was levied again in 1778 and 1780. This caused him to become discontented, and in 1781 he was arrested in his own house by Warren Hastings' order : he was rescued by his own troops, and Warren Hastings and the English had to escape to Chunar on the 21st August. The Rájá remained in open rebellion till the end of September, when Warren Hastings, who had defeated his troops in several fights, deposed him and appointed his nephew, Mahipnarain, to be Rájá, and succeed to the estates. Chait Singh fled to Gwalior, and died there in 1810.

The criminal administration of the whole estates and the civil and criminal administration of the city were taken from the Rájá and assumed by the English, and he was compelled to pay a tribute of forty lakhs. Mahipnarain

died in 1795, and was succeeded by his son Uditnarain, who died in 1835, and was succeeded by his nephew, the present Málhárájá, Ishri Prasád Narain.

When the Nawáb Vazir of Oudh, Vazir Ali, was deposed by the English in 1798 he was ordered to live at Benares.

On the 14th January, 1799, he attacked Mr. Cherry, the agent of the Governor-General, in his house and murdered him and two other officers. The magistrate, Mr. Davis, defended himself in his house till the cavalry arrived from Bitábar and rescued him. Vazir Ali escaped at the time, but was given up and confined for life in Calcutta.

From this time English rule was never seriously disturbed, nor did any events of importance occur at Benares till the mutiny of 1857. The news of the outbreak at Meerut was received on the 15th May; the 34th Native Infantry became mutinous at once, and on the 1st June it was determined to disarm them. They replied to the order with a volley, and were fired on and ultimately dispersed; the Sikhs and Irregular Cavalry having joined them. The civil officers held the magistrate's kutcherry till the 5th, when they joined the others in the mint, which was fortified, and all the treasure removed into it. From this time parties of Europeans kept passing up from Calcutta to the North-West, and Benares was safe. In the district, however, Mr. Moore, the joint magistrate, was murdered at Gopiganj. Early in July the Rajputs of Jaunpur marched to attack Benares, but on the 17th they were completely defeated by an English force. Next day the erection of the fort at Rájghát was commenced, and as this commands the whole city, peace was not again disturbed.

25. *Administration.*—Benares is the headquarters of the Benares commissionership, and the seat of a civil and sessions judgeship, which does not include any other district. The commissioner's division includes the districts of Gházipur, Benares, Mirzapur, Azamgarh, Gorakhpur, and Basti. The commissioner of Benares is also agent for the Governor-General in his official relations with the Málhárájá of Benares, and *ex-officio* superintendent of the Málhárájá's Family Domains.

(a.) The ordinary revenue and criminal staff of the district consists of a magistrate and collector, one first class joint magistrate, one 2nd class joint magistrate, one junior assistant magistrate, and one deputy magistrate and collector. The two tahsildars or sub-collectors are invested, as a rule, with the powers of a magistrate of the 2nd or 3rd class, and there are also ten honorary or special magistrates for the city of Benares who have 2nd class powers. The magistrate and collector and the two joint magistrates have 1st class powers, the assistant and the deputy magistrate have either 1st or 2nd class,

and the others have 2nd or 3rd class. The deputy and sub-magistrates and seven of the special magistrates are natives, the rest are Europeans.

(b.) Benares is the headquarters of a civil and sessions judge, who has under him—

One sub-judge.

One judge, small cause court.

One munsif.

In 1875 the total cost to the State of these courts was £5,819, and the amount realized by court fees and stamps was £8,079. The number of cases decided by each class of courts was—

Civil courts	2,618
Criminal courts	3,598
Revenue courts	2,221

The average value of the property under litigation in the civil courts was £73.

(c.) Police.—In the year 1875 the total strength of the district regular police force was 989. This number consisted of 1 district superintendent, 129 officers under the rank of inspector, 21 mounted and 838 foot constables.

The cost of maintaining this force was £12,005. The total strength of the police is one man to every square mile, and one man to every 802 persons on the total population. The cost per head of the population was 4d. In 1871 there were 1,362 chaukidars or village watchmen, or one to every 420 inhabitants.

(d.) Jails.—There are at Benares three places of confinement for prisoners—(1) the central jail, (2) the district jail, (3) the magistrate's lock-up.

(1.) The central jail had in 1875 an average of 1,895 prisoners, of whom all were males. It was under the control of a superintendent (a surgeon), who had under him a jailor and 115 subordinate officials. The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 33-11-0.

The average outturn of labour was Rs. 5.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 5,743.

The rate of mortality was 1·84 per cent. of average strength.

(2.) The district jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 580 prisoners, of whom 485 were male and 95 female. It is under the charge of the civil surgeon, who has under him a jailor and 48 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 30-7-0.

The average outturn of labour was Rs. 6.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 2,221.

The rate of mortality was 1·72 per cent. of average strength.

(3.) The lock-up contained in 1875 a daily average of 34 under-trial prisoners, of whom 32 were males and 2 females.

(e.) *Postal and Telegraph.*—There are 13 imperial and 2 provincial post-offices in the Benares district. In 1871 there were 631,545 letters received and 400,334 despatched, and the total charges were £4,674.

In 1876 1·0 letter per head of the total population passed through the post-office, and 27·37 letters per educated person.

There are three telegraph offices at the Benares, Moghal Sarai, and Sakaldia stations of the East Indian Railway, and four at the Benares, Shio-pur, Bábatpur, and Phúlpur stations of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway.

26. *Revenue and Finance.*—The district local funds amounted in 1875 to £ and the expenditure to £

There is only one municipality, viz., Benares; of this the receipts and expenditure were as follows in 1875 :—

Municipality.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Incidence of taxation per head.
			Rs. a. p.
Benares 	25,032	20,589	0 13 0

The whole amount of revenue raised in the district, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, in 1876 was , or on a population of 825,447¹ an incidence per head of shillings, out of this or per cent. of the total receipts was returned to the district in payment for its administration.

27. *Medical Statistics.*—There are seven dispensaries in this district—at Benares, Bhilupur, Vizianágram, Ausánganj, Chauk, Chandauli, and Sikrol—of which all but Chandauli are in the city or suburbs of Benares. During the year 1875, 75,702 persons were treated in these dispensaries, of whom 1,511 were in-door and 74,191 out-door patients.

The total number of deaths in the year 1875 was 14,839, or 18·69 per 1,000 of the population; the mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 during the previous six years was 17·74; 10,384 persons were vaccinated, of whom 9,471 were successfully operated on.

28. *Education.*—There were 490 schools in the district in 1875 with 14,274 scholars, which gives an average area of 2·03 square miles for each school, and a percentage of 1·79 scholars on the total population. Their cost

¹ Increased by one per cent. per annum from census of 1872, as authorised in Administration Report.

was £17,140, of which £11,406 was paid from provincial and £5,734 from local revenues.

29. *Fairs and Chief Towns.*—There are no towns in the district worth mentioning except Benares and Rámnagar :—

(1.) Benares will be described in the article on the city, and it is only necessary to state here that it has an area of 3,141 square acres, a population of 175,188, or 56 persons to the square acre. The municipal income is £14,331, and falls at the rate of Rs. 0-14-8 per head.

(2.) Rámnagar is situated on the Ganges, about two miles above Benares, and on the opposite or south side. It has a population of 11,953 and an area of 204 square acres, which gives 59 persons to the acre. It has a municipal income of £293, which falls at the rate of Rs. 0-3-11 per head. It is the residence of the Mahárájá of Benares, who has a palace there.

There are no fairs of importance in the district except the gatherings at Benares itself, which will be described under the head of the city.

30. *Archaeology.*—The objects of archaeological interest which are situated in the city of Benares or in its immediate neighbourhood will be described under that head. The Buddhist remains at Sárńáth, four miles from the city, will fall under the above head; they date from the first to the sixth century of our era, and consist of two towers half a mile distant from one another, and the walls and foundations of buildings, of which nothing else remains. The fort at Rámnagar, two miles west of Benares, is of interest, as are also the temple, tank, and garden commenced by Rájá Chait Singh, and finished by the present Mahárájá.

A. COTTERELL TUPP.

17-3-'77.

B I J N O R.

BIJNOR.

A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. Position and area.—The district of Bijnor—bounded on the north by Dehra Dún, on the west by Saháranpur, Muzaffarnagar, and Meerut, on the south by Moradabad, and on the east by the Tarái parganas and British Garhwál—lies between north latitude $29^{\circ} 1' 0''$ and $30^{\circ} 7' 15''$, and east longitude $78^{\circ} 2' 15''$ and $78^{\circ} 59' 15''$, and contains an area of 1,902¹ square miles and a population of 737,153, or 388 to the square mile.

2. Sub-divisions.—The district is divided into five tahsílis or sub-collectorates and fifteen parganahs, as follows, proceeding from east to west:—

Tahsíli.	Parganah.			Revenue, 1876.
1. Nagína	1. Afzalgarh	10,729
	2. Barhapura	2,901
	3. Nagína	12,954
2. Dhámpur	1. Siohára	7,340
	2. Dhámpur	12,842
	3. Nihtaur	6,421
3. Chándpur	1. Burpúr	4,676
	2. Chándpur	11,207
	3. Báshta	5,171
4. Bijnor	1. Dáránagar	6,520
	2. Bijnor	8,619
	3. Mandáwar	6,802
5. Najibábád	1. Akbarábád	4,906
	2. Kiratpur	8,685
	3. Najibábád	8,528
Total				118,307

3. Physical geography and boundaries.—The district of Bijnor is situated in the extreme north-west of the province of Rohilkhand, and, with the exception of a portion of Saháranpur, is the most northerly district in the plains of the North-Western Provinces.

Bijnor is in shape a rude triangle, nearly equilateral. Its base from Kamhariya on the Ganges, in the south-west, to Kotí Ráo on the Kumaun border, in the east, is 57 miles from point to point. The west side, which is bounded along its entire length by the Ganges, is 62 miles in length from Kamhariya in the south-west to Lalitpur in the extreme north.

¹ According to Census Report, 1872.

The east or rather north-east, side has for boundary the submontane road which skirts the low outer range of the Himalayas, and is in length 56 miles from Kotí Ráo in the south-east to Lallatpur on the Ganges in the north. The civil station of Bijnor is in latitude $29^{\circ} 22'$, longitude $78^{\circ} 11'$. The average elevation of the district above sea-level is about 800 feet.

Seven districts surround Bijnor. Commencing at the apex of the triangle in the north, and going southwards along the western border of the district, Dehra Dún, Saháranpur, Muzaffarnagar, and Meerut march with Bijnor, the Ganges flowing between. Moradabad lies along the southern boundary, and for about 16 miles to the south-east the Tarái parganas adjoin the district.

British Garhwál bounds Bijnor along its entire length to the north-east and east.

The area of Bijnor is 1,195,987 British statute acres, or 1868.73¹ square miles.

In the extreme north of the district about 25 square miles are covered with a system of low hills, locally known as the Chándí hills. They are apparently analogous in geological formation to the Siwalik range on the opposite bank of the Ganges.

With the exception of a scanty yield of poor grasses, and in the valleys and on the lower slopes stunted sál and other less useful trees, and bamboos of no very great value, these hills are without vegetation, barren, rugged, waterless, and inhospitable. They are quite uninhabited.

The eastern side of the district is flanked along its entire length by the outermost and lowest of those quasi-Siwalik hills which lie between the open country and the true Himalaya mountains, and which here run nearly due north-west and south-east. In 1866 a uniform and distinct boundary was acquired by the construction of a broad road from Kotí Ráo on the south-east to Lallatpur, on the Ganges, in the north, and its formal determination as the boundary between British Garhwál and Bijnor.

For an average of about four miles within this road, the whole of the eastern side of the district is covered with forest. In some places the tree forest is unbroken throughout the whole breadth of this belt; but it is generally interspersed here and there with open glades of grass, which afford pasture to many thousand head of cattle from all parts of the country.

There is no tarái or marshy belt between the forest and the open country in Bijnor, as elsewhere to the east: the Bhábar forest and the cultivated plain meet one another without its deadly intervention.

¹ According to revenue survey as given in settlement report.

Excluding the small hilly tract in the extreme north, and the belt of forest along the north-west side, all the rest of Bijnor is an open and highly cultivated plain.

The open plain country of Bijnor is, in common parlance, divided into two portions,—‘khádir’ or low-lying land, and ‘bángar’ or up-land. The former almost always lies along either the present or old bed of a stream. Its soil is always more or less clayey, but generally contains a sufficient admixture of sand to render it very valuable.

The soil in the bángar tracts always contains sand, the proportion of which determines the quality of the soil; but the places are very rare where the sand so entirely predominates as to render the land unculturable.

All along the western border of parganahs Kiratpúr, Mandáwar, Bijnor, Daránagar, and Báshta, towards the Ganges, runs a strip of low-lying khádir soil of an average breadth of two miles. The westernmost fringe of this strip, on the immediate bank of the river, is generally used either as pasture or for the production of thatching grass.

This tract of khádir land towards its southern end, in parganah Báshta, lies very low; in places, indeed, below the level of the Ganges. Much of it, especially those parts lying immediately under the sloping bank which divides the khádir from the bángar, is a mere swamp, and grows even rice only in its drier parts. This swamp is, however, gradually drying up and lessening in extent, and the spots are now few in which in years of moderate rains rice cannot be grown.

Along the eastern border of the district, underneath the hills, the slope of the country is of course nearly at right angles to the course of the mountains, *i.e.*, from north-east to south-west. In the northern half of the district, where it is narrower towards its apex, the hills discharge their drainage across its whole breadth direct into the Ganges.

In the western side of the district the drainage all finds its way in a south-west direction into the Ganges; while in the centre, equally removed from the influence of the hill slope on the east, and that of the immediate valley of the Ganges on the west, the slope of the country and the direction of its streams are nearly from north to south.

The highest point in the district is the great trigonometrical survey station on the peak of the Chándí hills, next to the south of that on which stands Chándí temple. It is 1928·7 feet above sea-level. The lowest point is the extreme south-west corner of the district, which is 687 feet above sea-level.

4. *Rivers.*—The chief streams in the northern portion of the district are, commencing from the north, (1) the Peli Ráo, (2) the Rawásan, (3) the Kotáwáli, and (4) the Málin. These all flow from north-east to south-west.

(1.) The Peli Ráo has no perennial stream, but is a mighty torrent in the rains, and for some time afterwards: it drains the south and east face of the Chándí hills and an extensive surface of the mountains of south-west Garhwál. It is nowhere bridged. Its whole course in this district is about eight miles, and it flows into the Ganges about ten miles south of Hardwár.

(2.) The Rawásan rises within the Garhwál hills, and is chiefly a channel for the surface drainage of the rainy season, but it has not so furious a torrent as the Peli, and some water remains in it all the year round; it curiously disappears under ground in the middle of its course, and reappears just before it falls into the Ganges near Tantwálá, 13 miles below Hardwár: its whole course in this district is ten miles.

(3.) The Kotáwáli also rises in Garhwál and carries some water all the year round: a considerable area is irrigated from its lower course, and it falls into the Ganges at Asafgarh, 15 miles below Hardwár, after a course of nine miles in this district.

(4.) The Málin is composed of three main streams, the Málin, the Riwári, and the Ratnál; the former joins the Málin three miles above Najibábád, and the latter three miles below it: the united stream then flows south-west through parganahs Kíratpur and Mandáwar to Ráoli, where it falls into the Ganges six miles above Bijnor, after a course in this district of 33 miles. The Málin is bridged at Najibábád on the Hardwár road.¹

The other rivers of this district, taking them from north-west to south-east as they issue from the hills, are:—

(5.) The Gángan. This rises about ten miles north-east of Najibábád on the borders of Garhwál, and after a tortuous course of 45 miles through parganahs Najibábád, Akbarábád, Nagína, Dhámpur, and Burpúr, it quits the district at Dahína on the borders of parganahs Burpúr and Siobára, and passes into the Moradabad district: it is a perennial stream and flows in a deeply-cut bed; this stream is bridged on all principal roads which cross it.

(6.) The Kho rises in Garhwál and enters the district at Kotdwár, on the road from Srínagar to Najibábád. It flows south, receiving a large tributary—the Sanneh—almost at once, and draining parganahs Barhapura, Nagína, and Dhámpur, it joins the Ramganga at Makarpuri in the last parganah after a course of 34 miles. It receives the drainage of a large mountain area,

¹ The bridge was carried away in 1876, but will probably be re-built.

and is consequently liable to sudden and violent floods. It is nowhere bridged.

(7.) The Ramganga enters the district at Kálágarh on the common border of parganahs Barhapura and Afzalgarh, and, as it has already had a long course in Kumaun and Garhwál, it is a large stream. It flows west for six miles, and then turns south, and flowing through parganah Afzalgarh, it leaves the district at Ismailpur, in parganah Siohára, after a course of 22 miles. It is nowhere bridged, and in the rains, when it is not fordable, communication is kept up by ferry boats.

(8.) The Bán is a perennial stream flowing in a well-defined bed : it rises in the north of parganah Nihtaur, and flowing nearly due south to Yúsafa, on the borders of parganahs Chándpur and Burpur, it passes into the Moradabad district after a course of 26 miles. It is bridged on all the chief roads.

(9.) The Karúla rises about a mile north-west of Nagína, and flowing past that town and through parganah Dhámpur in a tortuous course of 29 miles, it leaves the district at Rámpur, in parganah Siohára. It is perennial, and is bridged on all the main roads.

None of the rivers of the district are navigable except the Ganges as far as Nángal, 20 miles south of Hardwár : 2,078 acres are irrigated from rivers and 11,148 from canals, of which there are two : one fed from the Kho river, and the other known as the Lower Gángau Canal, to form which that river is diverted for ten miles of its course near Nihtaur.

The Ganges itself passes out from the hills at Hardwár, and forms the western boundary of this district till it leaves it in parganah Báshta, dividing it from the three Doáb districts of Saháranpur, Muzaffarnagar, and Meerut. It passes three miles west of the town of Bijnor, and has altogether a course of 68 miles in the district. It first runs 20 miles due south, then 16 miles south-west, and finally 32 miles a little east of south : it receives no accessions of any importance in this district, but all the small streams in the north which flow down from the Chándí hills fall into it.

5. *Lakes.*—There are no lakes of any importance in this district, as the slope of the land is too great to allow of water lodging permanently anywhere.

The highest point near Chándí is 970 feet (excluding hills), and the lowest is 687 feet: the average fall per mile is 4·9 feet over a distance of 58 miles, taken from north to south. From east to west the slope is from 360 feet to 742 feet on the Ganges, or 2·8 per mile over 42 miles.

There is a continuous line of swamp under the high bank which separates the bángar or high land from the Ganges khádir or low land, except

in parganahs Bijnor and Dáráñagar, and in the south-west of parganah Mandáwar this swamp spreads out greatly and covers 2,500 acres. Rice is grown in the drier parts of it, and its waters drain into the river Málín. It is commonly called the Ráoli jhil, and is covered in the winter with aquatic birds of all kinds.

There are numerous small jhils (except in parganah Bijnor), but none deserving of separate mention.

6. *Forests and waste lands.*—Three hundred and seventy square miles, or 19·80 per cent. of the total area, are almost unbroken forest. It occurs chiefly in parganahs Najibábád, Barhapura, and Afzalgarh, or those along the base of the Himalayas. These three have respectively 202, 103, and 65 square miles of forest area.

In 1866 a broad road was made from Kotí Ráo on the south-east to Lalitpur on the Ganges, and for an average breadth of four miles within this road the whole of the east side of the district is covered with forest. The tree forest, though often unbroken throughout this breadth, is generally interspersed with open grass patches. The Bhábar forest and the cultivated plains meet without the intervention of any belt of tarái such as exists further east.

In the extreme north the Chándí hills cover about 25 square miles; they yield nothing but poor grasses, and being rugged and waterless may be included as waste land.

Of the great forest in the Bhábar, 64,000 acres are the property of Government; much of this is leased to the Rurki Workshops for charcoal, the rest is managed by the Collector of Bijnor for the Forest Department.

The remaining 173,000 acres of forest land is the property of private individuals: most of it is pure sál forest, only interspersed here and there with grassy glades.

7. *Geology.*—Along the north-east border of the district under the Himalayas the slope of the country is at right angles to those mountains, or from north-east to south-west, and the drainage from the hills crosses the whole width of the district to the Ganges.

The average fall of the district from Hardwár to the extreme south-west (58 miles) is 4·9 feet per mile. In tahsils Dhámpur and Chándpur there are perennial underground springs which supply water to all the wells; the stratum which is the water-bearing one is called "bam," and wherever this prevails kacha (unbuilt) wells can be constructed with great ease, and are very durable.

The Chándí hills in the extreme north of the district are apparently of the same geological formation as the neighbouring Siwálíks: they are barren

and rugged. The eastern side of the district has a range of hills along its whole length between the plains and the true Himalayas; they are like the Siwálikhs, and run nearly due north-west and south-east.

In the south-west of the district the good alluvial soil is here and there overlaid with systems of sand hills or ridges which originally shifted their position with the prevailing wind, but have gradually got bound together by vegetation.

Excluding the Chándí hills and the forest tract along the Bhábar, the whole district is an open and highly cultivated plain of purely alluvial origin.

8. *Climate.*—The climate of Bijnor is one of the pleasantest in the North-Western Provinces. The proximity of the Ganges and the hills and the great extent of forest-covered area keep it moist, while the general predominance of sand in the soil and the numerous drainage channels of the district preserve it from too great dampness. The cold weather lasts from the 15th October to the 15th April, and even in the hot weather the heat is never so intense as it is in the Doáb and eastern districts.

The following table shows the mean maximum and minimum readings of the thermometer for the five years 1869—73:—

	Mean of five years.			
	Maximum.		Minimum.	
January	64
February	71
March	81
April	92
May	97
June	98
July	89
August	87
September	87
October	83
November	75
December	67

The average rainfall of the fourteen years from 1859 to 1873 was 42·8 inches per annum. The maximum was 56·9 inches in 1871-72, and the minimum was 23·1 inches in 1860-61. The rains generally begin about the 20th June and end about the 15th September.

9. *Minerals and trees.*—The principal forest trees are—(1) the dhák, (2) sembal or silk-cotton, (3) the bargad, the pipal, the pákar, and the gular, these

are all figs, and are all esteemed sacred, (4) the bahera, (5) the shísham or sissu, (6) the khair and the babúl, both mimosas, (7) the ber or jujube, (8) the bel, an astringent, (9) the ebony, (10) the auula, an astringent, (11) the sainjna or horse-radish, (12) the amaltás, a laxative, (13) the date palm, (14) the sain, (15) sirsa, (16) tún, and (17) jáman, all timber trees, (18) the nim, (19) the mahuwa, (20) the sál, best timber, (21) the bambú. Thatching and rope grasses, hemp, khas-khas (for tatties), and drugs of many kinds are found in the forests; 14,747 acres of the district are covered with groves of the mango tree. Calcareous earths and stone are excavated from the ravines of the Chándí hills and in the forests, but there are no other mineral products.

10. *Animals and birds.*—Besides the ordinary animals found in a North-Western Provinces district, a list of which is given under the article "Agra," there are found in this district (1) the tiger, (2) the sambhar, and (3) the wild elephant. The Bhábar jangal along the north-east border of the district of course teems with wild animals of all kinds, and from its comparatively secluded position they are not very often disturbed, and still afford good sport. The domestic animals usually found in Upper India all exist in this district. Cattle are exceedingly abundant, being sent to graze in the forests and waste lands from other districts: their price varies from £1-10 to £10. Of birds, wild fowl of all kinds abound, and the black partridge and bustard occur, as well as the more ordinary kinds of birds found in every district. Of fish, besides the common kinds (see "Agra"), the mahseer is plentiful, and grows to a large size.

11. *Population.*—In the census of 1872 the total population was 737,153.

(1.) *Area.*—This was 1,900 square miles in 1853, 1,882 in 1865, and 1,902 in 1872: it therefore decreased by 18, or .95 per cent., in the first twelve years, and increased by 20, or 1.06 per cent., in the latter seven years; the total increase in the whole nineteen years was therefore 2 square miles, or .105 per cent.

(2.) *Population.*—The total population was 695,521 in 1853, 690,975 in 1865, and 737,153 in 1872: it therefore decreased by 4,546, or .63 per cent., from 1853 to 1865, and increased by 46,178, or 6.6 per cent., from 1865 to 1872, while in the whole nineteen years the increase was 41,632, or 5.9 per cent. We therefore find that in the former period it decreased at the rate of .05 per cent. per annum, while in the latter it increased at the rate of .94 per cent. per annum, so that over the whole period of nineteen years it increased at the rate of .31 per cent. per annum. The slight decrease from 1853 to 1865 is

probably due to the transfer of a few mauzas to other districts, while the increase of 6 per cent. subsequently to 1865 is about the normal rate of progression, and shows that the district was not altered in any way after that date.

(3.) *Sex.*—There were of males in 1853, 377,234; in 1865, 369,022; and in 1872, 395,395: they therefore decreased in the first period by 8,212, or 2·2 per cent., and increased in the second by 26,373, or 7·1 per cent., while on the whole nineteen years the increase was 18,161, or 4·8 per cent.

There were of females in 1853, 318,287; in 1865, 321,953; in 1872, 341,757: they therefore increased in the first period by 3,666, or 1·1 per cent., and in the second by 19,804, or 6·1 per cent., while in the whole nineteen years the increase was 23,470, or 7·3 per cent.

The proportion of males to females was—

1·18 to 1 in 1853.

1·14 „ 1 „ 1865.

1·15 „ 1 „ 1872.

The proportion of males therefore decreased slightly between 1853 and 1865, and then very slightly increased again up to 1872.

The males decreased by 2·2 per cent. in the first period, and increased by 7·1 in the second, or increased by 4·8 on the whole. The females increased in the first period by 1·1 per cent., and in the second by 6·1, or by 7·3 on the whole. So that in the first period, while the males decreased 2 per cent., the females increased 1 per cent.; and in the second period the males increased 1 per cent. more than the females, while in the whole period the females increased 2½ per cent. more than the males. The annual rates were:—

	<i>Decrease per cent.</i>		<i>Increase per cent.</i>	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
In the first period	·18 ·01 ·25
In the second period	·09 ·87 ·38
In the whole period

(4.) *Number of mauzahs.*—This was 3,030 in 1853, 3,028 in 1865, and only 2,002 in 1872. The mauzahs therefore decreased by 2, or ·06 per cent., from 1853 to 1865, and diminished by 1,026, or 51·2 per cent., from 1865 to 1872; the total diminution in number on the whole nineteen years being 1,028, or 51·3 per cent., on the number remaining in 1872, or 33·8 per cent. on the original number of 1853. This enormous decrease can only be accounted for by some difference in the mode of enumeration in the two censuses.

(5.) *Persons per square mile.*—In 1853 there were 366 persons per square mile ; in 1865, 367 ; and in 1872, 381 : the density of population therefore increased by 1, or '2 per cent., in the first period of twelve years, or '016 per cent. per annum, and by 14 during the second period of seven years, or by 3·8 per cent., or '54 per cent. per annum, and by 15, or 4·0 per cent., during the whole nineteen years, or '21 per cent. per annum.

This district therefore increased in density less rapidly than any district in the Meerut division except Muzaffarnagar and Aligarh.

In 1872 there were 3·2 per cent. of persons above 60 years of age, and 8,246 males able to read.

The total agricultural population was 280,568,¹ and its percentage on the total population was 38·0; the total amount of land revenue was £113,006, and the rates and cesses on land were £11,732, while the incidence of the land revenue per culturable acre was Re. 1·4.

The area of assessed land was 1,752 square miles, 341 being uncultivable, 419 cultivable, and 991 uncultivated ; the unassessed area was 93 miles.

The number of mauzahs was 2,002, and number of houses 158,583, of which 151,609 were mud and 6,974 masonry.

There were 388 persons to the square mile, 1·06 villages per square mile, 368 persons per village, and 4·6 persons per house.

The total number of males was 395,395, and that of females 341,757.

12. *Castes and religions.*—There were 464,794 Hindús in 1853, 468,566 in 1865, and 493,601 in 1872 : they therefore increased in the first period by 3,772, or '8 per cent., and in the second by 25,035, or 5·3 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 28,807, or 6·19 per cent.

There were of Musalmáns 230,727 in 1853, 222,409 in 1865, and 243,455 in 1872 : they therefore decreased in the first period by 8,318, or 3·7 per cent., and increased in the second by 21,046, or 9·4 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 12,728, or 5·5 per cent.

The proportions of Hindús to Musalmáns were—

2·01 to 1 in 1853.

2·10 „ 1 „ 1865.

2·02 „ 1 „ 1872.

The proportion of Hindús therefore increased slightly from 1853 to 1865, and then fell again to its former level by 1872.

¹ Believed to be under-estimated ; should be 392,747 at least, if not more. Markham's Settlement Report, p. 28.

The Hindús increased by '8 per cent. in the first period, by 5·3 per cent. in the second, and by 6·19 per cent. on the whole.

The Musalmáns decreased by 3·7 per cent. in the first period, and increased in the second by 9·4 per cent., and on the whole by 5·5 per cent.

So that in the first period the Hindús increased about 1 per cent., while the Musalmáns decreased 3½ per cent. in the second period. The Musalmáns increased nearly twice as fast as the Hindús, and on the whole they increased by 6 per cent., against the 5 per cent. of the Hindús. As the Musalmáns actually decreased from 1853 to 1863, while they increased 9 per cent. from 1863 to 1872, it is probable that the district must have received some accession of Musalmán villages, or that the large Muhammadan towns for which this district is famous must have flourished exceedingly, and have received additions from without, as 9 per cent. would be above the normal rate of increase in seven years.

In 1872 the numbers of each religion and of each sex in it, and the percentages of each were as follows :—

Hindús	... {	268,596 males. 225,005 females.	Total	... 493,601
Musalmáns	... {	126,746 males. 116,709 females.	Total	... 243,455
Christians, &c.,	{	53 males. 45 females.	Total	... 96
			GRAND TOTAL	... 737,153

Percentages on total population.

Hindús	... 67·0	Males	... 53·6
Musalmáns	... 33·0	Females	... 46·4

Of the more important divisions of the Hindús there were—

Brshmans	28,789
Rájputs	66,693
Banials	17,114
Ahirs	5,069
Chamárs	116,910
Kayaths	3,542
Kurmis	56

and of those of the Musalmáns—

Shekhs	45,174
Saiads	10,580
Moghals	1,596
Pátháns	8,256

13. *Occupations.*—The number of male persons above 15 years of age in each of the six great classes was :—

Professional	5,173
Domestic	27,724
Commercial	13,051
Agricultural	101,212
Industrial	47,393
Indefinite	52,817
				Total	247,370

14. *Town and village population.*—There are 5 tahsifis, 15 parganahs, and 2,002 villages in the district; of these latter 990 contain less than 200 inhabitants, 694 less than 500, 238 less than 1,000, 48 less than 2,000, 14 less than 3,000, 5 less than 5,000, 8 less than 10,000, 5 less than 20,000.

There are therefore no less than 13 towns with more than 5,000 inhabitants, and the district is peculiar in the number of large towns it has and their great Muhammadanism.

The towns above 10,000 are :—

	Population.		Number of Hindús to 100 Musalmáns.
Bijnor	...	12,865	...
Najibábád	...	17,418	...
Sherkot	...	12,586	...
Chándpur	...	12,033	...
Nagína	...	19,696	...

The towns above 5,000 are :—

Siohára	...	8,340
Sahaspur	...	6,309
Dhámipur	...	6,555
Mandáwar	...	7,662
Afzalgarh	...	8,350
Níhtaúr	...	9,392
Jahálu	...	5,979
Kiratpur	...	9,579

There are no fortified or walled towns in the district.

The houses are mostly tiled in the large villages and towns.

There is one old fort called Pattharghar, a mile north-east of Najibábád, but it is now falling into ruins. It was built by the Rohillas about 1755.

15. *Value of house and furniture.*—The cost of building a large masonry house of the best kind would be £200 to £500 or more; of the second kind (*i.e.*, masonry, but smaller and less substantial) £15 to £150; and of the third (*i.e.*, mud or unbaked bricks) £1 to £10. A trader's house of the better

class contains generally about £50 worth of furniture and utensils of all kinds. Bedsteads, mattresses, quilts, carpets, and boxes would represent about £30 worth of this, and cooking vessels the remainder. A well-to-do cultivator owns a few strong boxes, bedsteads, and quilts worth about £10, besides cooking vessels worth £5 or £6. An artizan in middling circumstances possesses one or two mattresses, bedsteads, and quilts, and some drinking and cooking vessels worth altogether about £3. A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars, one or two quilts, and perhaps a mattress, worth in all 10s. to £1.

16. *Trades-unions*.—As in other districts, there are no organized trades-unions in the English sense of the word, but the powerful caste pancháyais answer very much the same purpose, though they have a much wider field of action than an English trades-union has. Cultivators sometimes band together to resist enhancement of their rents, and pay *pro rata* contributions to a general fund. Goldsmiths, grain dealers, cloth merchants, and other traders have guilds which regulate their trade customs.

17. *Village communities*.—The villages in this district, as in nearly all in the North-West, may be classified into three kinds, according to the modes in which the land is held and the Government revenue paid :—

Zamindári.—Where the whole of the land belongs to several owners in joint occupation, one (or more) of the owners is usually selected by the rest to manage the estate and to collect the Government revenue and pay it in to Government; in these villages there are no pattiis or separate shares of land marked off from the rest, but each proprietor owns a defined proportion of the total produce of the estate.

Imperfect pattiduri.—Where the village is partly held by several owners in joint occupation, and partly by several owners in severalty or separate occupation. Here the tenure is partly of the first class and partly of the third class, and each portion is managed as if it were a separate estate belonging to that class.

Pattidari.—Where the land has been completely divided among the sharers, and is held by several owners in severalty, but under one tenure as regards the Government. Here the lands and homesteads are entirely divided off to each owner, but the whole estate remains liable for the Government revenue or any part of it.

There is also a fourth kind of mahál or estate called bhaiachára, where, though it belongs to the second or third class, the rights and interest of each co-sharer are not determined by his ancestral share, but by custom or possession. In all these classes of estates the settlement of the revenue to be

paid to Government is a joint settlement, *i.e.*, all the co-sharers are responsible for the fulfilment of the contract, and all the co-sharers, jointly and severally, and the entire estate are responsible for the whole revenue.

The cultivated land may be divided into three classes:—

(1.)—The sîr land or home farm kept by the owner for his own cultivation.

(2.)—The land held by tenants-at-will on terminable leases.

(3.)—The land held by tenants with rights of occupancy.

[For further details see under "Allahabad."]

There are no unusual tenures in this district.

The following shows the number of estates of each kind :—

				No. of estates.
Zamindâri ... {	Single owners	1,267
	Several owners	1,222
Pattidari ... {	Perfect	80
	Imperfect	298
	Bhaiachûra	273
			Total	... <u>3,140</u>

Of the entire number, 40 per cent. is owned by single owners, chiefly of the Talukdars of Sherkot, Tújpur, Haldaur, and Sáhanpur ; 79 per cent. of all estates are held in zamindâri tenure.

18. *Condition of the people.*—Among the Hindûs of the district (if the classification adopted in the Bombay Gazetteer be accepted) the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children, would be approximately—(1) for those in the 1st class, or having incomes over £100 a year, £96 to £180 ; (2) for those in the 2nd class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 or year, about £24 to £60 ; and (3) for those in the 3rd class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns it would be rather more, as their habits are somewhat more expensive.

The agricultural population forms the great majority of the whole, and nearly all the weavers, barbers, blacksmiths, carpenters, &c., cultivate lands and live quite as much by agriculture as by their trades. These latter are fairly prosperous, *i.e.*, in good seasons they can pay their way and do not get more into debt, but the former are as poor and as helpless as the agricultural population is in most districts.

19. *Character of the soil.*—Here and there, but chiefly in the south-west of the district, the good soil is overlaid by systems of sand hills, or rather ridges which originally shifted their positions year by year under the influence of the prevailing west wind, but have now mostly become fixed in position and bound together by coarse vegetation. There are but few of them which cannot now

be got to produce barley and the coarser crops in years of favourable rain. The open plain country is divided into bángar or up-land, and khádir or low-land. The latter lies along the beds of the streams, and its soil is always clayey, but with sufficient sand to make it valuable : the soil in the bángar is more sandy and less clayey, and sometimes the sand when in great excess renders the land unculturable. Of the cultivated area of the district 36 per cent. is khádir and 64 per cent. bángar. There is a strip of khádir land all along the Ganges, about two miles broad : the rivers Málín, Kho, and Rámganga all have their khádirs, which are very valuable, though not so extensive as those of the Ganges.

20. *Course of tillage.*—There are the usual two harvests in Bijnor, the kharíf or autumn crop, and the rabi or spring crop : the former sown in June or July, as soon as sufficient rain has fallen to render the land moist, and cut in October and November ; the latter sown in October and November, and cut in March and April. Sugarcane occupies the ground during both harvests ; it is planted in February and March, and cutting commences in December, and goes on to March. The following table shows the principal crops, with the proportion borne by each to the total cultivation :¹

Harvest.	Crop.	Area in acres occupied by crop.	Percentage of total cultivation.
Kharíf (autumn),	Sugarcane ...	43,882	14·0
	Fallow for sugarcane ...	43,881	
	Cotton ...	46,388	7·4
	Ahar ...	59	...
	Hemp ...	87	...
	Makka ...	962	0·2
	Charri ...	8,927	1·4
	Coarse rices ...	133,078	21·2
	Fine rices ...	12,023	1·9
	Jufr ...	1,001	0·2
	Bajra ...	45,291	7·2
	Urd ...	25,254	4·0
	Moth ...	13,306	2·1
	Mung ...	2,570	0·4
	Kodon ...	3,991	0·6
	Shámákh ...	2,774	0·4
	Til ...	297	0·1
	Mixed crops ...	8,069	1·3
	Totals of the kharíf harvest ...	391,940	62·4
Rabi (spring) ...	Wheat ...	113,599	18·1
	Barley ...	29,738	4·7
	Gram ...	21,627	3·4
	Wheat with barley ...	29,166	4·7
	Wheat with gram ...	2,763	0·4
	Masúr ...	2,962	0·5
	Peas ...	1,849	0·3
	Alsi ...	562	0·1
	Láhi ...	1,938	0·3

¹ Markham's Settlement Report.

Harvest.	Crop.	Area in acres occupied by crop.	Percent-age of total cultivation.
Rabbi (spring) ...	Tarra	2,799	0·5
	Sarson	5	...
	Coarse rabbi crop ... Barley with either of the preceding.	1,170	0·2
	Other mixed crops ...	1,317	0·2
	Vegetables	4,351	0·7
	Opium		
	Tobacco		
	Safflower		
	Totals of the rabbi harvest ...	213,746	34·1
	Fallow of the year	21,798	3·5
Total cultivation ...		627,884	100·0

There are two kinds of fallow land—(1) fallow of the year, which though prepared for the rabbi crop, has not yet been sown; and (2) fallow for sugar-cane, which is allowed to lie fallow for a whole year. Makka or maize is often grown in both these kinds of fallow, and does not count as a crop.

There is nothing peculiar in the modes of agriculture in vogue in the district, and the implements employed are those of the Vedic age, unimproved in any way.

Arhar (dál) and hemp are very seldom grown alone : they are generally planted as borders to other and more valuable crops, such as cotton and sugar-cane. Tobacco is grown over 1,507 acres in the district: it requires much watering, manuring, and weeding, and must have the best and strongest soil. It is a very exhausting crop, and is never grown two years running on the same land: it is of three varieties, and is always propagated by seed, not by cutting.

21. *Years of scarcity.*—The great famine of 1783-84 was felt here as it was in every district in the North-Western Provinces, but not with so much severity as near Agra and to the south-west. The next famine was in 1803-4, three years after the cession of the "Ceded Provinces :" there was almost a complete failure of rain at the time the cultivators were sowing their autumn crops: no grain came in from the west, but, on the contrary, it was exported eastwards; no rain fell after the 12th August, and hot winds began blowing: by February, 1784, discord was rife, the cultivators removed their crops as soon as they were ripe, and the landholders absconded in every direction. Rain did not fall till July.

In 1825-26 there was a serious drought, and the scarcity was made worse by zamindars refusing to allow sowings on account of the approaching settlement. In March there were no crops except in the khádir of the Ganges and Ramganga in Nagína, Bijnor, and Sherkot. One-quarter of the revenue was expected to be lost.

In 1837 there was no rain, and by September granaries and grain boats were being attacked, and armed bands going about plundering; but Rohilkhand and the Upper Doáb were not so badly off as the rest, and the rain which fell in February, 1838, rescued Bijnor and Moradabad, and enabled them to reap an average crop.

In 1860-61 the famine affected with great intensity only three-tenths of the district : it was intense over the whole of Akbarábád, over three-fifths of Nagína, three-tenths of Dhámpur, the whole of Sichára, but hardly any of Dáránagar.

In 1868-69 the famine was more or less severely felt all over the district.

22. Communications and trade.—There are only 15 miles of metalled road in the district, there is no kankar in Bijnor, and even for these few miles the kankar has to be brought from Muzaffarnagar. There are 189 miles of raised and bridged unmetalled roads, and 335 miles of cross-country roads, but many of these are in a bad state, and there is not a single really good road. The district traffic is seriously impeded in its way to the markets of the Doáb by the river Ganges all along the west side with its heavy sand and wide and almost impassable khádir tract.

The heavy timber traffic from the Bhábar forests to the Doáb crosses the district by two main lines *via* Nagína, Bijnor, and Jalálpur Ghát, and *via* Najibábád and Ráolíghát.

The chief roads are—(1) to Meerut, south-west, only 4 miles in this district; (2) to Muzaffarnagar, north-west, only 8 miles in this district ; (3) to Hardwár *via* Mandáwar, Nágal, and Amsot, 40 miles due north ; (4) to Najibábád, 21 miles north-east *via* Kiratpur ; (5) to Nagína and Afzalgarh, 32 miles east-north-east ; (6) to Káshipur *via* Dhámpur and Sherkot, 42 miles in this district, due east ; (7) to Moradabad *via* Haldaur and Nurpur, 30 miles south-east in this district ; (8) to Dhanaura *via* Chándpur, 24 miles south in this district. The Ganges is navigable as far as Nágal, 20 miles south of Hardwár, but none of the other rivers are navigable.

There are but few manufactures in the district, and they are but of little value. Sugar is one of the great staples, and Bijnor sugar fetches higher prices than any other.¹ In Bijnor the Brahminical threads (or janeo) are largely

¹ Markham, p. 30.

made, and in Mandáwar a kind of papier-maché; coarse cotton cloths are also manufactured in the Bijnor tahsil.

In Najibábád brass, copper, and iron work, blankets, cotton cloths, and shoes are made largely.

In Nagína carved ebony goods, glassware, ropes, and matchlocks are manufactured.

The district being so thickly populated imports in ordinary years 24 per cent. of its food-grains. Gram is also largely imported as food for animals, as the district produces but little.

About 60,000 mans of salt are imported every year from Rohtak and Dehli.

23. *Money-lending, wages, and prices.*—The rates of interest at present (1877) charged in the district are as follows :—

(a.)—In small transactions, when articles are pawned, from 12 to 15 per cent.

(b.)—In small transactions, when personal security is given, from 18 to 37 per cent.

(c.)—In large transactions, when jewels, &c., are pledged, from 6 to 12 per cent.

(d.)—When bankers lend money to bankers on personal security, 6 to 9 per cent.

(e.)—When land is mortgaged, from 9 to 18 per cent.

The rates of wages are as follows :—

(a.)—Coolies and unskilled town labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ pence a day.

(b.)—Agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 pence a day.

(c.)—Bricklayers and carpenters, 6 pence to 2 shillings a day.

Female labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men.

Boys of from 12 to 16 get two-thirds of the wages of full-grown men.

Boys younger than that and girls from one-half to one-third.

The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were as follows :—

	Number of seers (2lbs.) for a rupee (2s.)			
	1st April.	1st August.	1st December.	Average.
Wheat	22	23
Rice	15	15
Júár	30	32
Bájra	27	28
Dál	19	23

The price of wheat was 82lbs. per rupee from 1832 to 1842, and 43lbs. from 1862 to 1873, or nearly double; as it forms the food of all the better classes, it regulates to a great extent the permanent price of other grains.

24. *History.*—In Akbar's reign the present district of Bijnor was in the Sirkar of Sambhal, in the Subah of Dehli. Most of the present parganahs are to be found in the Ain-i-Akbari lists, either in the same names as they now bear or in others easily recognizable.

The following table shows the information afforded by the Ain lists with regard to Bijnor in the sixteenth century:—

Parganahs of the Ain-i-Akbari.	Corresponding nearly with the pre- sent parganahs of	Area in Ak- bari bighas.	Revenue in dams.	Militia.	Prevailing castes.
		Bighas. b.	H. F.		
Bijnor	Bijnor	60,362 0	33,55,425	60 500	Taga Brahmans.
Jhálu	Dáránagar	26,795 0	2,37,809	50 400	Ját.
Mandáwar	Mandáwar	65,710 0	12,56,995	25 300	Bais.
Jalálábád	Najibábád	49,393 0	14,70,072	25 100	Ját.
Kiratpur	Kiratpur	80,973 0	24,10,609	100 500	Taga and Ját.
Akbarábád	Akbarábád	53,790 14	6,40,264	50 200	Not mentioned.
Nagína	Nagína	99,233 0	26,47,242	50 500	Ahír.
Islamábád	Barhapura	25,261 10	3,46,348	50 500	Ját.
Sherkot	Afzalgarh	19,870 0	49,21,051	100 1,000	Not mentioned.
Síchára	Dhámpur	50 300	
Sahnspur	Síchára	27,945 0	13,33,732		Taga.
Nítaur	Nítaur	54,844 10	9,44,304	50 400	
Chándpur	Chándpur	35,974 12	11,38,160	50 300	
Azampur	Búrpur	87,273 0	4,31,071	50 200	Taga and Ját.
	Bashta (nearly)	55,467 0	23,89,478	30 300	Taga.
Total	...	742,892 6	2,41,22,560	740 5,500	

These figures may be taken fairly to represent the present district as it stood in the latter half of the sixteenth century, as though a good many villages in Chándpur and Bashta have been transferred to Moradabad, yet many others have been incorporated with Bijnor. Only the cultivated area is given, and it is equal to 464,308 acres, or 73·8 per cent. of the present cultivated area.

Up to 1817 the present district formed part of Moradabad, and was called the north division of it, and the title is still found in use in official correspondence as late as 1837. In 1824 the headquarters of the district were removed from Nagina, where they had up to that time been, to their present site at Bijnor, partly for health, and partly to be nearer to Meerut.

There is really no history of Bijnor, except the little that can be gleaned from the Rohilla and Pathán narratives, till we reach the time when it was ceded to us in 1801.

The Rohilla Afghans first settled in Rohilkhand about 1700. The grandson of the first chief was the first to rise into note, and he received the title of Nawáb Ali Muhammad, and a grant of most of Rohilkhand. The Subahdar of Oudh quarrelled with him, and induced the Emperor Muhammad Sháh to march against him. He surrendered, was received into favour, and at the end of Muhammad Sháh's reign recovered Rohilkhand about 1748. He appointed his six sons to succeed him under the guardianship of Hafiz Rahmat Khan. The Marhattas having placed Sháh Alam on the throne of Delhi in 1771 turned towards Rohilkhand, and the Rohillas allied themselves with the Nawáb of Oudh in 1772 ; but he betrayed them, and getting troops from Warren Hastings and the Emperor attacked and overcame them. Hafiz Rahmat was killed, and Faizulla Khan, one of the six sons of Ali Muhammad, was appointed Nawáb of Rámpur at a treaty concluded at Lál Dhang, in the Bijnor district, in 1774 by the Rohillas and the Vazir of Oudh.

Rohilkhand was finally ceded to the English in 1801, and nothing further of note occurred in Bijnor till the mutiny of 1857, except the defeat of the Marhattas under Amir Khan of Tonk near Afzalgarh in 1803 by the English under Colonel Skinner.

Of early notices, there is Hwen Tsang's in the fifth century, when he found Mandáwar a flourishing city. In about 1114 some Agarwala Baniahs from Murári, in the Meerut district, crossed into Bijnor, found Mandáwar in ruins, restored it, and settled there.

In about 1400 Timur Lang visited Bijnor, massacred a great number of the inhabitants, and utterly conquered them in a final battle near Lál Dhang. He thence marched to Hardwár and left the district.

In 1857 the first news of the Meerut outbreak reached Bijnor on May 13th : the Rurki Sappers then mutinied and reached Bijnor on the 19th ; but they passed on, and the district remained quiet till the 1st of June, when the Nawáb of Najibábád appeared at Bijnor with 200 armed Patháns. On the 8th, after the outbreak at Bareilly and Moradabad, the European officers left Bijnor and got to Rurki on the 11th. The Nawáb proclaimed his rule and remained in power till the 6th of August, when the Hindús defeated him ; on the 24th the Musalmáns returned and drove out the Hindús : the Hindús attacked them again on the 18th September, but were defeated, and the Nawáb ruled supreme till 17th April, 1858, when our troops crossed the Ganges and completely defeated the rebels at Nagína on the 21st. British authority was immediately re-established, and not again attacked.

25. *Administration.*—The following table gives the police and civil court jurisdictions corresponding to the revenue parganahs and their areas :¹

Tahsíl.	Parganah.	Chief police station.	Civil mun-sifi.	Civil judge-ship.	Area.	Total area of tahsíls.
1. BIJNOR ... {	Bijnor ...	Bijnor ...	Bijnor ...		103	306
	Dáránagar ...	Amhera ...			98	
	Mandáwar ...	Mandáwar ...			104	
2. NAJIBÁBÁD .. {	Najibábád ...	Najibábád ...	Nagína ...		312	455
	Kiratpur		86	
	Akbarábád ...	Kiratpur ...	Bijnor ...		56	
3. NAGINA ... {	Nagína ...	Nagína ...	Nagína ...	Moradabad.	98	476
	Barhapura ...	Barhapura ...			174	
	Afzalgarh ...	Afzalgarh ...			203	
4. DHÁMPUR ... {	Dhámpur ...	Dhámpur ...			154	322
	Siohára ...	Siohára ...			103	
	Nihtaur ...	Nihtaur ...			64	
5. CHÁNDPUR ... {	Chándpur ...	Chándpur ...	Bijnor ...		133	308
	Búrpur ...	Nárpur ...			69	
	Bashta ...	Bashta ...			104	
Total	1,868	1,868

(a.) *Revenue and Criminal.*—The district staff generally consists of a magistrate and collector, joint magistrate and assistant magistrate, and one uncovenanted deputy magistrate. There are five tahsildars who are sub-magistrates and sub-collectors, and have 2nd or 3rd class powers. The magistrate and joint magistrate have 1st class powers, and the assistant 1st or 2nd class. There are besides two special magistrates of Siohára and Nagína with 2nd class powers, and a district superintendent of police. The magistrate, joint magistrate, and assistant magistrate are Europeans; all the other magistrates are natives.

(b.) *Civil.*—Bijnor is under the civil and sessions judge of Moradabad, who holds sessions here; there are two munsifs of Bijnor and Nagína.

The number of cases decided by the courts was in 1875:—

Magistrates	1,515
Collectors	1,679

(c.) *Police.*—In the year 1875 the total strength of the police force was 667. These consisted of 1 district superintendent, 101 officers subordinate to inspectors (on less than Rs. 100 a month), 11 mounted constables, and 554 foot constables. The cost of maintaining the force was £7,650. The total strength

¹ Markham's Settlement Report.

is one man to every 2·8 square miles, and one man to every 1,090 persons. The cost of maintenance is equal to £4·02 per square mile, or 2·5d. per head of the population.

(d.) *Jail*.—There are a district jail and a magistrate's lock-up at Bijnor, besides the ordinary police and tahsili lock-ups.

(1.) The district jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 158 prisoners, of whom 151 were males and 7 females. It is under the charge of the civil surgeon, who has under him a jailor and 21 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was Rs. 41-14-4.

The average outturn of labour was Rs. 9.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 832-15-0.

The rate of mortality was 0·50 per cent. of average strength.

(2.) The lock-up contained in 1875 a daily average of 40 under-trial prisoners, of whom 33 were males and 7 females.

(e.) *Postal and Telegraph*.—There are 15 imperial and 10 district post-offices in Bijnor : in 1871, 75,913 letters were received and 100,843 despatched.

There are no telegraph offices or lines of railway in the district, but a line has been projected from Moradabad to Hardwár.

26. *Revenue and Finance*.—The district local funds amounted in 1875 to £22,807, and the expenditure to £15,256.

There are five municipalities in Bijnor ; of these the receipts and expenditure were as follows in 1875 :—

Municipality.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Incidence of taxation per head.
	£	£	Rs. a. p.
1. Bijnor	1,220	1,010	0 8 10
2. Chândpur	900	658	0 8 0
3. Dhâmpur	623	486	0 13 4
4. Nagina	1,595	1,850	0 7 10
5. Najibâbâd	1,682	1,625	0 8 1

The whole amount of revenue raised in the district, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, in 1876 was £163,650, or on a population of 766,638¹ an incidence per head of 4·2 shillings : out of this £47,375, or 39 per cent. of the total receipts, was returned to the district in payment for its administration.

In 1853 the land revenue was Rs. 11,97,695, in 1865 it had decreased to Rs. 11,82,714, and by 1872 to Rs. 11,30,060 : it therefore decreased by

¹ Corrected at 1 per cent. per annum from the census of 1872, as per Administration Report.

Rs. 14,981, or 1·2 per cent., during the first period, and by Rs. 52,654, or 4·4 per cent., during the second; while the total decrease on the whole nineteen years was Rs. 67,635, or 5·6 per cent. The decrease was therefore ·1 per cent. per annum during the first period, and ·62 per cent. per annum during the second, while it was ·3 per cent. per annum on the whole period.

27. *Medical Statistics.*—The following are the diseases most prevalent in Bijnor, as indicated by the frequency of treatment in the Government hospitals during the last ten years :—

		... 27 per cent. of cases treated.		
Ophthalmia	...	10	ditto	ditto.
Bronchitis	...	9	ditto	ditto.
Scabies	...	9	ditto	ditto.
Rheumatism	...	9	ditto	ditto.
Neuralgia	...	8	ditto	ditto.
Herpes	...	7	ditto	ditto.
Diarrhoea	...	6	ditto	ditto.
Constipation	...	5	ditto	ditto.
Dysentery	...	5	ditto	ditto.
Remittent fevers	...	4	ditto	ditto.
Enlarged spleen	...	1	ditto	ditto.

Dysentery is the most fatal disease, if judged by the number of cases which die in hospital. No small-pox cases were treated in hospital, though the disease is not uncommon.

The total number of deaths in the year 1875 was 18,177, or 24·65 per 1,000 of the population: the mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 during the previous six years was 22·19, and the average number of deaths per annum was 20,040.

There were three dispensaries;¹ in 1875, 9,543 persons were treated in these, of whom 9,096 were out-door and 447 in-door patients. The number of vaccinations was 23,970, of which 19,653 were successful.

28. *Education.*—There were 447 schools in the district in 1875 with 9,291 scholars, which gives an average area of 4·25 square miles for each school, and a percentage of 1·26 scholars on the total population.

These schools are under the inspector of the Meerut circle, and the educational committee controls the funds of the halkabandi schools and the disbursement of the municipal grants. The inferior zila school teaches up to the 3rd class standard of a high school.

The halkabandi schools have only been opened since the revision of the settlement in 1874.

There are some aided schools maintained by the American Methodist Episcopalian Mission. The total charges for these schools in 1872 were £3,131.

¹ Another has been opened at Sherkot from January 1, 1877.

29. Fairs and Chief Towns.—The chief towns in the district are :—

(1.) Afzalgarh, in parganah of the same name, tahsíl Nagína, on the left bank of the Ramganga, 15 miles east of Nagína. It was founded by the Patháns, and there is still there the ruins of a fort built not long ago by Nawáb Afzal Khan : its only trade is in forest timber.

Population, 8,350 ; area, 157 acres ; 53 persons per acre.

(2.) Bijnor, the headquarters of the district, 3 miles east of the Ganges ; it is chiefly noted as being the headquarters of the Játs ; it has no buildings of any importance.

Population, 12,865 ; area, 179 acres ; 72 persons per acre.

(3.) Chándpur, a municipal town 19 miles south of Bijnor : there is a mosque here believed to be 250 years old.

Population, 12,033 ; area, 135 acres ; 89 persons per acre.

(4.) Dhámpur, the chief town of that tahsíl, small but wealthy and well built, with a good bazar ; it is on the road from Moradabad to Hardwár, and is 22 miles east of Bijnor.

Population, 6,555 ; area, 79 acres ; 83 persons per acre.

(5.) Jhálu, a town in parganah Dáránagar, 6 miles east of Bijnor, on the Dhámpur road.

Population, 5,979 ; area, 134 acres ; 45 persons per acre.

(6.) Kiratpur, in tahsíl Najibábád, on the road from that place to Bijnor, said to have been founded about 1450 A.D., in time of Bahlō Lodi.

Population, 9,579 ; area, 228 acres ; persons per acre, 42.

(7.) Mandáwar, in parganah of that name, and tahsíl Bijnor ; it is 8 miles north of Bijnor.

Population, 7,622 ; area, 143 acres ; persons per acre, 53.

(8.) Nagína, a municipality and chief town of the tahsíl of this name ; it was founded by the Patháns, who built the fort, now used as a tahsíl ; it was the headquarters of the district in the first days of English rule : it is known for ebony carvings and sugar.

Population, 19,696 ; area, 274 acres ; persons per acre, 72.

(9.) Najibábád, a municipality and chief town of the tahsíl ; it is on the banks of the Málin Naddi, and was founded 1161-67 H. by the Nawáb Najib-ud-daula. The fort of Patthargarh, a mile to the east, was erected by him in 1755 A.D. His tomb is to the south of the town, and within the town is the Kothi Mubárak Bunyád, a memorial of his magnificence. To the north is the tomb of his brother Jahángir Khán.

Population, 17,418 ; area, 225 acres ; persons per acre, 77.

(10.) Nihtaur, on the banks of the Gángan, on the Dhámpur road.

Population, 9,392 ; area, 128 acres ; persons per acre, 73.

(11.) Sahaspur, a Musalmán town in parganah Siohára, on the Moradabad and Hardwár road, 34 miles south-east of Bijnor.

Population, 6,309 ; area, 101 acres ; persons per acre, 62.

(12.) Siohára, a poor but populous town on the Moradabad and Hardwár road, 28 miles south-east of Bijnor.

Population, 8,340 ; area, 136 acres ; persons per acre, 61.

(13.) Sherkot, in tahsíl Dhámpur, on the Kho river, once the seat of the tahsíli, now the residence of Chaudhri Basant Singh, a large talukdar.

Population, 12,586 ; area, 351 acres; persons per acre, 36.

Fairs.—The one held in Kartik (November) at Dáránagar on the Ganges, six miles south of Bijnor, is the chief : it lasts four or five days, and 30,000 or 40,000 persons attend it : it is principally a bathing fair. There are also fairs at (1) Nagina in February on the Shioratri festival, and (2) Baldia parg Dáránagar in Bhádon.

30. *Archaeology.* (1.)—In parganah and tahsíl Najibábád, on the Hardwár and Najibábád road, 22 miles south of the former, are the remains of a large fort erected about 150 years ago in the time of Sháhjahán by Nawáb Sabal Khán, a Ját converted to Islámism.

(2.) Near Syáo, in parganah Chándpur, there is a village called Sarai Shekh Habib, and in this is a handsome mosque and a tomb of some antiquity.

(3.) Sitábani, in parganah Báshta, is believed by the Hindús to be the place where Rám Chandr gave Sitá in charge to Agni : there is nothing but a temple there now.

(4.) At Sáhanpur, three miles from Najibábád, are two tombs of the time of Aurangzeb and several others of interest.

(5.) At Párisnáth, three miles east of Barhápura, in tahsíl Nagina, are the remains of a city six miles in extent : the ruins of a fort and some foundations are all that remain, but a few carved stone figures have been found there.

(6.) At Najibábád are the tombs of Nawáb Najib-ud-daula and his brother Jahángir Khán, a fort called Patthargarh, and the Kothi Mubárik Bunyád, built by Najib about 1755 A.D.

(7.) At Nagina is the Pathán fort now used as a tahsíl.

A. COTTERELL TUPP.

BUDAUN.

BUDAUN.

A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. *Position and area.*—The district of Budaun—bounded on the north by the districts of Moradabad and Bareilly, on the west by the districts of Bulandshahr and Aligarh, on the south by Etah and Farukhabad, and on the east by Sháhjahánpur and Bareilly—lies between north latitude $27^{\circ} 39' 45''$ and $28^{\circ} 27' 0''$, and east longitude $78^{\circ} 19' 30''$ and $79^{\circ} 24' 0''$, and contains an area of 2,004 square miles and a population of 934,348, or 466 to the square mile.

2. *Sub-divisions.*—The district is divided into five tahsílis or sub-collectories and eleven parganahs, as follows, proceeding from east to west:—

Tahsili.				Parganah.			Revenue, 1876.
							£
1. Dátaganj	1. Salímpur	13,617
				2. Useth	9,078
2. Budaun	1. Budaun	10,652
				2. Ujhání	10,472
3. Bisauli	1. Satesi	5,064
				2. Bisauli	6,265
				3. Islám Nagar	10,022
4. Sahaswán	1. Kote Salbahán	11,023
				2. Sahaswán	10,283
5. Gunaur	1. Asadpur	8,370
				2. Rajpura	8,063
				Total	...		102,914

3. *Physical geography and boundaries.*—This district is in the shape of an irregular parallelogram, the longer sides of which run north-west and south-east, and which is bounded entirely on the western and southern sides by the river Ganges, while the river Ramganga forms its boundary on the east: the two streams unite a little beyond the borders of the district, and constitute it a true Doáb. The greatest length of the district from east to west is 84 miles, and the greatest breadth from north to south 42 miles.

The district is divided into two nearly equal portions, of which the western is the larger, by the river Sot or Yár-i-wafádár, on the banks of which the town of Budaun is situated : the parganahs of Bisauli, Satesi, Budaun, Salimpur, and Useth are to the east of this river, and the remainder to the west.

The district is 84 miles long from Sirhu in the east to Cháhupur in the west, and is 42 miles broad from Sikri in the north to Baliya in the south ; the medium breadth is 29 miles, and the least is 11 miles.

The centre portion of the district, which is comprised in the parganahs of Islámnagar, Kote, and parts of Sahaswán and Ujháni, may be said to form the natural watershed of the two rivers Maháwa and Yár-i-wafádar or Sot, which flow respectively to the right and left of it. This portion of the district is the highest, the levels here reaching 608 feet above the sea. Immediately south of this comes the high and sandy ridge of bhúr, which, commencing in parganah Islámnagar, runs down in an easterly direction right through the district to Useth.

South of this line of bhúr, again, is the alluvial tract of the Ganges, situate between the Maháwa and a network of other streams to the north, and the river Ganges to the south : with this river the south-western boundary of the district terminates.

North of the centre, again, comes the country on the left bank of the Yár-i-wafádár, the conformation of which in no way differs from that on the right bank of that stream. As the centre portion is the watershed between the two streams above named, so the drainage from this northern portion falls southerly into the Sot. Lastly, in the eastern corner of the district, in the parganah of Salimpur, is to be found the alluvial tract of the Ramganga river.

The general aspect of the district in the centre and northern portions may be described as that of a level and fertile plain, interspersed here and there, but now very sparsely, with patches of dhák jungle. The land begins to dip as it approaches the rivers, of which it constitutes the watershed. As it approaches the stream of the Yár-i-wafádar it cuts into huge gaping ravines, through which the drainage finds its way into that stream. As it approaches the Maháwa to the south the dip is more sudden, the high ridge of bhúr terminating in many places quite abruptly, and being succeeded at its base by the low porous khádir lands, which were undoubtedly at one time the old bed of the Ganges. Beyond these, again, the Maháwa flows.

The high and sandy ridge of bhúr which divides the centre and better cultivated portion of the district from the alluvial tract of the Ganges is for the most part very useless land. Villages are certainly located on it, but they

are very sparsely inhabited, and the lands still more sparsely cultivated. Ahírs are the principal inhabitants. They keep very large herds of cattle, which they graze on the grass of these plains. In the alluvial tract, on the other hand, of the Ganges, *viz.*, in the country south of this bhúr line, cultivation ceases as you approach the bank of that great river. The fear of inundation is the deterrent cause. Here, instead of cultivation you come across vast savannahs of grass, intermixed here and there with the tall stout reed called the "táttar."

A heavy jungle of dhák and wild date still exists in the eastern portion of the district. It lies in the country between the Áril Naddi to the east and the villages of Belhat, Gidhaul, and Jagat of parganah Budaun to the west. This tract is a continuation of the once famous jungles which existed in the neighbourhood of Aunla in Bareilly, and into which the armies of the Moghal emperors were unable to penetrate. The estates situated in the heart of this tract are known by the name of the Bankatti villages. A similar heavy jungle is to be found about Kakora in parganah Ujhéni, not so large in extent, but quite as thick and dense. Another heavy patch, consisting of dhák jungle only, is found in parganah Rajpura, and is called the "kálá dháká" or black forest.

4. *Rivers.*—The chief rivers are of course (1) the Ganges and (2) the Ram-ganga ; but these only skirt the district and do not enter it at any point. The rivers which traverse the district are (beginning from the east)—(1) the Undhári Naddi ; (2) the Áril or Ari Naddi ; (3) the Sot or Yár-i-wafádar ; (4) the Maháwa ; (5) the Chuía ; (6) the Nakta Naddi.

(1.) The Ganges first touches this district at its point of junction with the Moradabad and Bulandshahr districts, six miles above the town of Anupshahr; it flows south-south-east for 28 miles, dividing parganahs Rajpura and Asadpur from the Bulandshahr district, and then turns south-east, and for 60 miles divides parganahs Sahaswán, Ujhéni, and Uséth from the districts of Aligarh, Etah, and Farukhabad. It here leaves the district at its point of junction with the Sháhjahánpur district. During the course of 88 miles no large rivers join it, and the only stream which falls into it is the Maháwa, as the Sot does not unite with the Ganges till about 12 miles beyond the borders of this district. The river is navigable throughout the year for boats of large burden. It has five bridges of boats across it, and is traversed by a permanent bridge at Rájghát, where the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway enters Rohilkhand.

The boat bridges are at Anúpshahr, Rájghát, Kachlaghát (on road to Háthras), Kádirchauk (on Etah road), and Súrajpur Ghát (on Fatehgarh road).

Only Kachlaghát and Kádirchauk are Government bridges, but there are numerous other ferries of boats which bring in an annual income to Government of about £2,500.

(2.) The Ramganga first touches this district on the Bareilly border about 10 miles south of the city of Bareilly ; it pursues a southerly course for 36 miles, forming throughout it the eastern boundary of the district, and dividing parganahs Salímpur and Useth from the Bareilly and Sháhjahánpur districts : it finally leaves this district at a village called Daindu, about 24 miles south-east of Budaun. During this course it receives no accessions of importance, but the Andhári and Aril Naddis fall into it, the one near Salímpur, and the other just before it leaves the district. It is navigable only in the rainy season for boats of any size, and it has six ferries on it, including the bridge of boats at Bela Dandi on the Sháhjahánpur road ; the annual income of these is about £300.

(3.) The Sot or Yár-i-wafídár Dil Thamman rises in the Píla Kund in parganah Amroha of the Moradabad district : it enters this district at the extreme west point of parganah Islámnagar, and flows through it to its boundary with parganah Bisauli, from which point it forms the boundary between parganahs Bisauli, Satesi, and Budaun on the east bank, and parganahs Kot and Ujhéni on the west bank. It then enters parganah Useth and traverses the whole length of it, passing under the town of Useth and falling into the Ganges a little beyond the boundary of the district. It obtained its name from one of the Moghal emperors from supplying his army with water. There were two bridges over it, built by the Patháns at Budaun and at Bisauli, but both have been swept away by floods, though the one at Budaun has been replaced by a timber bridge.

(4.) The Mahúwa rises in a swamp in parganah Hassanpur in Moradabad, and flowing through parganahs Rájpura, Asadpur, Sahaswán, and Ujhéni for 65 miles in a south-east direction, falls into the Ganges near Hussenpur in parganah Ujhéni. There are no ferries on this stream, and it is fordable, except in the rains.

(5.) The Áril or Ari rises in parganah Sambhal in Moradabad, enters this district at Ajítpur, on the west boundary of parganah Islámnagar, and continues to flow through that parganah to its boundary with parganah Bisauli, from which point it becomes the boundary of the latter, dividing it from Rámpur and parganah Sarauli of Bareilly : hence it flows into parganah Aunla of Bareilly, but returns to this district again in parganah Budaun, which it divides from Salímpur, and after completing a course of 33 miles it falls into the Ramganga near Hazratpur. It is bridged where the Bareilly road crosses it, and also on the road from Budaun to Dátáganj. It is generally fordable, except in the rains.

The above are the only perennial streams in the district, but the principal nállis or rain streams are the Bardmár, the Bhainsur, the Chuia, the Chui, in the western portion of the district, and the Bajha or Andhári (which is in reality the old bed of the Aril) and the Kadwára in the eastern portion.

5. *Lakes.*—There are several jhils of considerable extent in the district. Among these, those at Usáwan and Dalelganj in parganah Useth, that at Nurpur in parganah Ujhéni, the Dhand in parganah Sahaswán, the Charsora in parganah Islám Nagar, the Singtarra in parganah Satesi, and the Purenia Tál in parganah Rajpura are the chief.

The Dalelganj lake is close to the course of the river Sot, and is in shape a very irregular semicircle about three miles long. The Singtarra consists of three separate lakes, two close to Saiadpur, and one a mile further north; they are all small.

6. *Forests and waste lands.*—Stretching along the Ganges is a belt of jangal covered with thatching grass and jháo which varies from one-fourth of a mile to four miles in width: this forms an extensive pasture for cattle in the hot months. The bhúr plateau which runs across the middle of the district from north-west to south-east is only cultivated very partially, and vast spaces lie between each village, which are rarely utilized, except for pasture. The short grass of the bhúr plateau is particularly nutritious.

There are no regular forests in the district, but tracts of dhák jangal are to be found in every parganah, the largest being in Rajpura and Dátáganj: they are fast being cut down for fuel.

A heavy jangal of dhák and date still exists in the eastern part of the district between the river Aril on the east and the villages of Gidhaul, Jagat, &c., on the west. It is the remains of the great Aunla jangal which was impenetrable in the Moghal times.

Another large jangal occurs at Kakora in parganah Ujháni, and a heavy patch of dhák only in parganah Rajpura on the borders of Moradabad.

7. *Geology.*—The whole of the district is of alluvial and fluviatile origin: the centre and northern portions are a level plain, sloping towards the Sot on the east, and the Maháwa on the south-west. There is a high ridge of bhúr or sandy soil running north-west and south-east parallel to the Maháwa, and this is succeeded at its base by the low khádir lands of porous clay which were at one time the old bed of the Ganges.

8. *Climate.*—The average total rainfall was 29·4 inches for the eleven years from 1860 to 1871. During this period the maximum was 44·2 inches in 1871, and the minimum was 14·0 inches in 1868. The annual mean temperature

was 76° in 1870, and the same in 1871 ; the lowest monthly mean was 58° in January, and the highest 91° in June.

The climate is the ordinary one of a Rohilkhand district ; it is somewhat less hot than a Doáb district, and is moister : the rains begin about the end of June, and end about the middle of September, when the cold weather sets in, till the beginning of April, and this is succeeded by the hot season, which lasts till the rains begin.

9. *Minerals and trees.*—There are no mineral products, except the saline efflorescence on reh or úsar lands, from which saltpetre is made, and from which edible salt can be made by refining.

The trees of the district are the ordinary ones of a North-West district, such as the shisham, nim, mango (ám), mahua, bakain, amaltás, bargad, pípal, bair, kachnár, sirsá, babúl, gúlar, nim chameli, jáman, imlí, date (khajúr), pákar, bar, mulberry (shatút), tún, labherá, dhák, báns or bambu, kathal or jacktree.

There are 23,000 acres of mango groves in the district ; the mahuá is not much grown. There is an enormous bargad tree at Karanpur in parganah Islámnagar.

10. *Animals and birds.*—There are no animals peculiar to the district. Leopards and tigers are not known in it. Antelope, pigs, and nilgái are common, and wolves occur on the sandy wastes of the bhúr tract.

Black partridge, quail, water-fowl, and hares abound, while florican and sand-grouse are occasionally met with. There is nothing peculiar in the breed of domestic cattle, nor are any attempts being made to improve it. The breed of horses has been improved by the use of Government stallions at three or four places in the district.

Plough bullocks cost Rs. 15 to Rs. 40 each, and sheep Re. 1 to Rs. 2.

For detailed list of wild animals and birds see "Agra."

Of fish, the mahásir, rahu, gonch, lánchi, bám, &c., are found in the rivers and lakes, and are used as food : they are chiefly caught with a cast-net by the dhímars or fishermen.

Population.—In the census of 1872 the Budaun district contained 2,004 square miles, 2,364 villages, 193,589 houses, and 934,348 persons. There were 4.66 persons and 1.1 villages to the square mile, 395 persons per village, and 4.8 persons per house. Of the 193,589 houses, 4,334 were of brick and 189,255 of mud. Of the total population of 934,348, there were 503,619 males and 430,729 females.

As regards religion, there were as follows :—

Hindús	... { Males 430,394
	... Females 364,138
			—————
	Total	...	794,532
			—————
Musalmáns	... { Males 73,148
	... Females 66,539
			—————
	Total	...	139,687
			—————
Christians, &c.	... { Males 77
	... Females 52
			—————
	Total	...	129
			—————

The percentages of the different religions and sexes on the total population were :—

Hindús	... 85·1	Males	... 53·9
Musalmáns	... 14·9	Females	... 46·1
	—————		—————
	100·0		100·0

In age there were 3·2 of the population above 60 years of age; and as regards education, 9,910 males were able to read and write out of a total male population of 503,619, or 1·9 per cent.

The total agricultural population was 627,737, and the total assessed area of land 1,962 square miles ; of this 234 were uncultivable, 378 were cultivable, and 1,350 cultivated, while the total area of the whole district was 2,004, of which 245 were uncultivable, 382 cultivable, and 1,376 cultivated.

The amount of land revenue was Rs. 10,28,548, and the rates and cesses on land amounted to Rs. 1,02,603, while the incidence of the land revenue per culturable acre was Rs. 0·14-10, and the percentage of the agricultural to the total population was 67·1.

As regards caste, the seven most important numbered as follows :—

Brahmans	63,541	Chamárs	133,528
Rájputas	65,258	Káyaths	9,726
Baníahs	21,701	Kurmís	6,143
Ahírs	81,522				

while the Musalmáns were represented in each division by the following numbers :—

Shekhs	104,743	Moghals	1,360
Saiáds	3,320	Patháns	30,092

As regards occupation, the six great classes were divided as follows, only males above 15 being taken :—

Professional	2,068
Domestic	22,287
Commercial	6,536
Agricultural	205,183
Industrial	36,522
Indefinite	36,795
			Total	... 309,291

The total population in the last three censuses was—

1853	845,868
1865	889,810
1872	934,348

showing an actual increase of 88,480, and an increase of 10·3 per cent. during the nineteen years from 1853 to 1872, 5·1 per cent. from 1853 to 1865, and 5·0 per cent. from 1865 to 1872. The proportions of males and females at the three censuses of 1853, 1865, and 1872 were :—

Year.	Males.	Females.	Total.
1853 ...	457,896	387,972	845,868
1865 ...	479,775	410,635	889,810
1872 ...	503,619	430,729	934,348
Actual increase	45,723	42,757	88,480
Increase per cent.	9·9	11·0	10·3

The differences in the chief particulars with regard to the district in 1853, in 1865, and 1872 were as follows :—

	1853.	1865.	1872.
Area in square miles	2,401	1,972	2,004
Population	845,868	889,810	934,348
Persons per square mile	424	451	466
Hindús	722,364	772,368	794,532
Musalmáns	123,504	117,442	139,687
Males	457,896	479,775	503,619
Females	387,972	410,635	430,729
Land revenue	10,97,329	9,25,558	10,28,548
Number of mauzas	2,232	1,856	2,364

In 1872 there were altogether 2,364 inhabited villages, of which 996 contained less than 200 inhabitants, 802 less than 500, 434 less than 1,000, 106 less than 2,000, 15 less than 3,000, 5 less than 5,000, 4 less than 10,000, 1 less than 20,000, and 1 above 20,000.

The proportion of males to females was—

1·19 to 1 in 1853.

1·17 „ 1 „ 1865.

1·16 „ 1 „ 1872.

The proportion of males therefore slightly decreased throughout the whole period.

The males increased by 4·7 and 4·9, or 9·9 on the whole.

The females increased by 5·6 and 5·0, or 11·0 on the whole. So that in the first period the females increased 1 per cent. faster than the males, and in the second period they increased at the same rate, while on the whole nineteen years they increased 1 per cent. faster.

The annual rates of increase were—

	<i>Increase per cent.</i>		
	Males.	Females	
First period39	.46
Second period7	.71
Third period52	.57

12. *Religion.*—There were 722,364 Hindús in 1853, 772,368 in 1865, and 794,532 in 1872: they therefore increased in the first period by 50,004, or 6·9 per cent., and in the second by 22,164, or 2·8 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 72,168, or 9·9 per cent.

There were 123,504 Musalmáns in 1853, 117,442 in 1865, and 139,687 in 1872: they therefore decreased in the first period by 6,062, or 5·1 per cent., and increased in the second by 22,245, or 10·4 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 16,183, or 13·1 per cent.

The proportion of Hindús to Musalmáns was—

5·8 to 1 in 1853.

6·5 „ 1 „ 1865.

5·6 „ 1 „ 1872.

The proportion of Hindús thus increased slightly between 1853 and 1865, and again went down by 1872 rather below what it started at in 1853.

The Hindús increased by 6·9 and 2·8, or 9·9 per cent. on the whole. The Musalmáns decreased in the first period by 5·1, and increased in the second by 18·9, or increased on the whole by 13·1 per cent. So that in the first period the Hindús increased 12 per cent. faster than the Musalmáns, while in the second the Musalmáns increased seven times as fast as the Hindús, and on the whole the Musalmáns increased 3 per cent. faster than the Hindús.

13. *Land Revenue*.—In 1853 the land revenue was Rs. 10,97,329, in 1865 Rs. 9,25,558, and in 1872 Rs. 10,28,548; it therefore decreased by Rs. 1,71,771, or 18·5 per cent., in the first period, and increased by Rs. 1,02,990, or 11·1 per cent., in the second period, while the total increase on the whole nineteen years was Rs. 68,781, or 6·6 per cent. The decrease was therefore 1·5 per cent. per annum from 1853 to 1865, 1·6 per cent. per annum from 1865 to 1872, and ·34 per cent. per annum on the whole period from 1853 to 1872.

Number of mauzas.—This was 2,232 in 1853, 1,856 in 1865, and 2,364 in 1872; the mauzas therefore decreased in the first period by 376, or 20·2 per cent., and increased in the second by 508, or 27·3 per cent.; the total increase in number in the whole nineteen years being 132, or 5·91, or ·31 per cent. per annum.

The total change of about 6 per cent. is not great, but the sudden vicissitudes from 20 per cent. decrease in the first period to 27 per cent. increase in the second are remarkable; and though the first is explained by the transfer of parganahs to Etah in 1856, no cause is known for the great increase in the number of mauzas which took place in the district within the second period.

Persons per square mile.—In 1853 there were 424 persons per square mile; in 1865, 451; and in 1872, 466; the density of population therefore increased by 27, or 6·3 per cent., in the first period of 12 years, or by ·52 per cent. per annum, and by 15, or 3·3 per cent., during the second period of seven years, or by ·47 per cent. per annum, and by 42, or 9·9 per cent., or ·47 per cent. per annum in the whole period of nineteen years. Its rate of increase was therefore about half-way between that of Bijnor and that of Moradabad, and was somewhat higher than the average of the Meerut division.

There are three kinds of predatory tribes in this district: (1) the Bhantus, who go about in large gangs of 20 to 50, and live by begging and stealing entirely; (2) the Habúrahs, who go in much smaller gangs and do occasionally work in the field; they also stay longer in one place; these two are nominally Hindús; (3) the Sansias are a wandering Musalmán tribe, not living in the district permanently, but crossing from the Doáb; they steal and kidnap children.

14. *Town and village population.*—There are two towns in the district with more than 10,000 inhabitants, and four with more than 5,000. These are—Budaun with 33,322, Saheswán with 17,063, Ujháni with 7,656, Islám Nagar with 5,424, Alápur with 5,347, and Bilsí with 5,282.

There are no fortified or walled towns in the district, but there are several ruined forts of the Moghal times, now quite useless for military purposes : the one near Bisauli is the only one of which much remains.

There were 4,334 masonry houses and 189,255 mud houses in 1872, or 193,589 in all.

There were 2,364 villages which spread over the 2,004 square miles, which is the area of the district, gives 1·13 villages to the square mile ; and there was an average of 396 persons to each village.

In villages the houses are built of mud and are mud-roofed on wattles or tiled : in towns the masonry houses either have flat timber roofs covered with mortar or are tiled. The houses, as is usual in the North-West, are built round a yard or sahan on to which the rooms open, and which is used in common by all those who occupy the surrounding apartments. (See description under Agra and Fatehpur.)

15. *Value of house and furniture.*—The cost of building a house of the best class may be considered to be from £200 upwards ; of the 2nd class from £15 to £150 ; and of the 3rd class from £1 to £10.

A trader's house of the better class contains generally about £50 worth of furniture and utensils of all kinds. Bedsteads, mattresses, quilts, carpets, and boxes would represent about £30 worth of this, and cooking vessels the remainder.

A well-to-do cultivator owns a few strong boxes, and bedsteads and quilts, worth about £10, besides cooking vessels worth £5 or £6.

An artizan in middling circumstances possesses one or two mattresses, bedsteads, and quilts, and some drinking and cooking vessels, worth altogether about £3.

A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars, one or two quilts, and perhaps a mattress, worth in all 10 shillings to a pound.

A well-to-do shopkeeper wears a dress of khásá malmal and longcloth, and has a masonry house with two rooms. He eats bread, pulses, vegetables, and ghi, and keeps one or two servants and a bullock cart.

An average peasant dresses in garah or coarse cloth, eats dal and bread, lives in a mud house, and keeps no servants, though he sometimes employs hired labour, and often has a bullock cart.

16. *Trades-unions*.—As in other districts, there are no organized trades-unions in the English sense of the word, but the powerful caste pancháyats answer very much the same purpose, though they have a much wider field of action than an English trades-union has. Cultivators sometimes band together to resist enhancement of their rents, and pay *pro rata* contributions to a general fund. Goldsmiths, grain dealers, cloth merchants, and other traders have guilds which regulate their trade customs.

17. *Village communities*.—The villages in this district, as in nearly all in the North-West, may be classified into three kinds, according to the modes in which the land is held and the Government revenue paid.

Zamindári.—Where the whole of the land belongs to several owners in joint occupation, one (or more) of the owners is usually selected by the rest to manage the estate, and to collect the Government revenue and pay it in to Government; in these villages there are no patti's or separate shares of land marked off from the rest, but each proprietor owns a defined proportion of the total produce of the estate.

Imperfect pattidári.—Where the village is partly held by several owners in joint occupation, and partly by several owners in severalty or separate occupation. Here the tenure is partly of the first class and partly of the third class, and each portion is managed as if it were a separate estate belonging to that class.

Pattidári.—Where the land has been completely divided among the sharers, and is held by several owners in severalty, but under one tenure as regards the Government. Here the lands and homesteads are entirely divided off to each owner, but the whole estate remains liable for the Government revenue or any part of it.

There is also a fourth kind of mahál or estate called bhaiachára, where, though it belongs to the second or third class, the rights and interest of each co-sharer are not determined by his ancestral share, but by custom or possession.

In all these classes of estates the settlement of the revenue to be paid to Government is a joint settlement, *i.e.*, all the co-sharers are responsible for the fulfilment of the contract, and all the co-sharers, jointly and severally, and the entire estate are responsible for the whole of the revenue.

In 1871 the number of estates in the district was 2,021, the number of registered proprietors or co-partners was 30,104, the total land revenue Rs. 9,37,029, the average land revenue paid by each estate Rs. 463, and the average revenue paid by each sharer Rs. 31-2-0.

The Brahmins hold 73 estates, of which the Sunádhs hold 53. The Khatrís or Thákurs hold 622 estates, of which the Tomárs have 36, the Gau-tams 40, the Bais 132, the Gaurs 90, the Jangárás 80, the Katherias 40, the Bachils 23, the Chauháns 15, and the Chandelis 11. The Baniahs hold 60 estates, of which the Agarwálás have 49. The Ahírs have 194, the Kayaths 91, the Khatrís 27, and the Kurmis 14. Of Musalmáns the Shekhs hold 346 estates, the Saiyads 52, the Patháns 73, and the Moghals only 2.

18. *Condition of the people.*—Among the Hindús of the district (if the classification adopted in the Bombay Gazetteer be accepted) the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the 1st class, or having incomes over £100 a year, £96 to £180 ; (2) for those in the 2nd class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 a year, about £24 to £60 ; and (3) for those in the 3rd class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns it would be rather more, as their habits are somewhat more expensive.

The income of a landlord is considerably increased, and that of a tenant somewhat diminished by the dues which it is customary for the latter to give and for the former to receive : these are a netful of bran in the spring, and a bundle of fodder in the autumn. The tenant must plough his landlord's fields twice a year, at the Holi and Dasehra festivals, and must lend him his cart to carry home the harvest, if he has one. Low caste tenants must repair the landlord's house and the village chaupál or place of business. The oilman must give some oil, the tanner a pair of shoes, and the potter 50 earthen pots a year, while the tailor has to make four suits of clothes for his landlord free, the cloth being provided. Thus all the tenants contribute their quota, and the landlord collects around him a little stock of necessaries, which if not very valuable, at least serves to remind him that he is the great man of the village, and them that they have to look to him for many a favour, which would certainly not be shown if they were remiss in paying their manorial dues.

19. *Character of the soil.*—The Budaun district contains 2,004 square miles ; of this all but 42 is assessed ; of the 1,962 miles of assessed land 234 is uncultivable, 378 is cultivable, and 1,350 is cultivated.

Where there are a great many small proprietors the owner often cultivates all, or nearly all, his land himself, but, as a rule, the greater portion is leased to cultivating tenants. Of the 831,189 acres in the whole district, 139,106 acres are held sir, *i.e.*, cultivated by the owners, 561,212 acres are cultivated by tenants having rights of occupancy, and 190,871 acres by tenants-at-will.

The whole of the district is liable to re-assessment for Government revenue, there being no permanently settled estates, except where maáfis or alienations of the revenue have been made for special purposes, generally as rewards for good service.

The soils are of four kinds :—

(1.) *Dumat*, a good permeable soil with an admixture of more or less sand ; the less sand the better.

(2.) *Mattiár* is a rich argillaceous soil, very retentive of moisture, and therefore the best where irrigation is not to be obtained.

(3.) *Bhur*, an essentially sandy soil of two kinds, one being only an inferior *dumat*, and the other being nearly pure sand and almost useless.

(4.) *Khadir* or *tarái* land ; the former is the land immediately under the *bhúr*, and was the *old* bed of the Ganges ; the soil is very porous, water being within a few feet of the surface ; two crops can be taken off the land every year.

Rice is grown as an autumn crop, and this is followed immediately by barley or wheat. The other autumn crops (*jowár*, *bájra*, &c.) and cotton do not grow well in it, and wheat and barley grow better in it in a dry season than in a wet one. This soil is confined to long strips running directly under the high ridge of *bhúr*.

The *tarái* land is the alluvial tract on the edge of the *present* beds of the Rámganga and Ganges. In this water is found within a few feet of the surface, and small kutcha wells can be constructed anywhere.

The natives reckon a fifth soil, called “*gauhani dharti*,” but this is really *any* soil which, from being near a village, has been constantly manured, watered, and cultivated till it has become very fertile, though it may originally have been only a sandy *bhúr* soil. In this is grown tobacco, opium, vegetables, &c.

The *reh* or *úsar* soil, which is uncultivable, is found wherever the Ganges has inundated the land : it is not found in the high lands or along the Rám-ganga ; and is found only in *mattiar* soil, not in *dumat* or *bhúr*. It is confined to level plains, and is known by the large white patches on the surface ; these consist of a dull grey powder, believed to be a saline deposit of the Ganges left behind after inundation. *Reh* effloresces in the rains, and is then used for making soap.

20. *Course of tillage*.—There are two harvests, the *kharif* or autumn one, and the *rabbi* or spring one. The *kharif* crops are sown in June, directly the first rains fall, and are harvested in October and November, and some of the rice in September, or even as early as the end of August ; but cotton is not

ripe for picking till February. Beside cotton and rice they include bajra, jowár, mot, &c. The rabbi crops are sown in October and November, and reaped in March and April. They consist of corn, barley, oats, vetch and peas, and dál or arhar. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both crops ; land is allowed to lie fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it ; and, as a rule, spring and autumn crops are not taken off the same land, but sometimes a crop of rice is taken in the autumn, and another crop of some kind in the spring.

The ordinary crops are not manured, but the lands close to a village which are used for poppy, tobacco, garden vegetables, &c. ; all kinds of manure, such as indigo refuse and wood and straw ashes, are used. The agricultural year commences with the first fall of rain, about the 20th June. The same crop is seldom sown in the same field for two seasons running : if an autumn crop is sown the first year, a spring crop is sown the next, and so on. The cotton crop is sown first of all, the seed being thrown in broadcast ; in the fourth month (Kuár) it bears pods, and when these burst the cotton is gathered : it is gathered every third day till December, when it withers up. Jowár and bajra are sown next after cotton ; the seed is sown broadcast and germinates in five days : it is weeded once or twice, and is cut from November 15th to December 15th.

Makká or Indian-corn is sown after jowár ripens in September, and is cut in October ; rice is sown late in June or early in July, ripens in August, and is cut in September ; sugarcane is put in in cuttings in February and springs up early in May ; it is well watered till the rains begin, and is cut in November.

21. *Years of scarcity.*—The first famine recorded in Budaun was in 1761, when many died and many emigrated ; the next was in 1803-4, when the autumn crops were completely destroyed and the spring crops were scanty ; the third was in 1837-38, when the greatest misery was experienced, and thousands died of starvation, and the price of grain rose to seven seers for a rupee. Dacoities were common everywhere, and the police were unable to repress them or maintain order.

The next was in 1860, when the autumn crops again failed, and no rain fell after September. The spring crops consequently perished, and many died of starvation. Grain began to rise in price in August, 1860, and continued high up to March, 1861, when it gradually fell, till in October ordinary rates prevailed.

In 1868 the rains partially failed, and this caused distress in 1869, as the autumn crops only produced half their average : timely rain in January and February, 1869, prevented the scarcity from ever reaching famine pitch.

Floods from the Ganges and Maháwa occur more or less every year, nad when unusually high or late, a good deal of the autumn crops sown on the chance of escaping get destroyed ; but no extensive injury is ever done by floods, as the banks of these rivers are lined with jangal and not cultivated.

22. *Communications and trade.*—The principal lines of communication in the district are as follows :—

(a.)—*Imperial roads.*

(1.) The road from Bareilly to Hátras. This enters the district about 13 miles from Budaun, and passing through Budaun and Ujheni, enters the Etah district at Kachlaghát, where it crosses the Ganges by a bridge of boats. It is bridged and metalled throughout.

(b.) *District roads.*—From headquarters to the tahsílis.

(1.) The road from Budaun to Bisauli *via* Wazirganj, 25 miles north-north-west from Budaun. From Bisauli this road goes on north-west to Chandausi in Moradábád 14 miles, and north to Asafpur in this district seven miles ; at both of these places there are stations on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway.

(2.) The road from Ujheni through Sahaswán and Gunaur to Anúpshahr. After leaving Gunaur this road crosses the Rohilkhand Railway at Babrela, where there is a station, and 10 miles further on crosses the Ganges by the bridge of boats : its total length is 48 miles : it is not metalled, but is raised and bridged.

(3.) The road from Budaun to Bilsí and Islám Nagar, 33 miles north-west. This is not metalled, and runs nearly parallel to the course of the river Sot.

(4.) The road from Budaun to Sháljhánpur through Dátáganj and Bela Dandi Ghát on the Rámganga, 22 miles.

(5.) The road from Budaun to Farokhbád *via* Kakrálah, Uséth, and Surajpur Ghát on the Ganges, 27 miles. Both these roads are raised and bridged.

(6.) The road from Dátáganj to Usóth, 18 miles ; this also is bridged.

(7.) The road from Budaun to Alapur and Usáwan, 20 miles in a south-east direction.

(a.) *Railroads.*—The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway cuts this district in two places, the first with its main line from Bareilly to Lucknow, between Bareilly and Chandausi. It traverses parganahs Bisauli and Islám Nagar near their northern borders for 16 miles, and has two stations in this portion of the district, *viz.*, Karenghi and Asafpur.

The second with the branch line from Moradábád to Aligarh, between Chandausi and Réjghát. It traverses parganahs Rajpura and Ásadpur, entering

the former near the station of Dhanári, crossing the Maháwa river by a bridge, and running west of Babrálah to Rájghát on the Ganges, where it crosses that river by an iron bridge. This portion is 13 miles in length.

23. *Money-lending, wages, and prices.*—The rates of interest at present (1877) charged in the district are as follows :—

- (a.) In small transactions, when articles are pawned, from 12 to 15 per cent.
- (b.) In small transactions, when personal security is given, from 18 to 37 per cent.
- (c.) In large transactions, when jewels, &c., are pledged, from 6 to 12 per cent.
- (d.) When bankers lend money to bankers on personal security, 6 to 9 per cent.
- (e.) When land is mortgaged, from 9 to 18 per cent.

The rates of wages are as follows :—

- (a.) Coolies and unskilled town labourers, $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ pence a day.
- (b.) Agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 pence a day.
- (c.) Bricklayers and carpenters, 6 pence to 2 shillings a day.

Female labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men.

Boys of from 12 to 16 get two-thirds of the wages of full-grown men.

Boys younger than that and girls from one-half to one-third.

The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were as follows :—

	Number of seers (2lbs.) for a rupee (2s.)											
	1st April.			1st August.			1st December.			Average.		
	M.	s.	c.	M.	s.	c.	M.	s.	c.			
Wheat	0 28 0	0 29 0	0 24 0		0 24 0	0 24 0	0 24 0	27		
Rice	0 13 0	0 12 0	0 12 0		0 12 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	12		
Jowár	0 36 0	0 30 0	0 36 0		0 36 0	0 36 0	0 36 0	34		
Bájra	0 33 0	0 30 0	0 33 0		0 33 0	0 33 0	0 33 0	32		
Dál	0 21 0	0 26 0	0 27 0		0 27 0	0 27 0	0 27 0	25		

The circumstances of Budaun, which is now rather aside from the busy routes of trade, have caused a less rapid and immediate rise in prices than has occurred in some other districts, but the construction of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway has added to the facilities for distributing the produce of the district, and a rise in prices and rents is taking place, and will continue. The

district is lightly assessed, and is likely to be very prosperous under the new assessment, which will last till 1896, or for 30 years from 1867.

24. *History.*—In the time of Akbar, Budaun was formed into a Sarkar of Subah Dehli and was sub-divided into 13 maháls; 5 of these now belong to Bareilly and 4 to Sháhjahánpur, while the maháls of Sarkar Sambhal are also to be found in the modern district of Budaun. At the commencement of British rule, on the cession in 1801, Budaun formed a portion of the Moradabad district; in 1805 five of the parganahs were transferred to Bareilly, while the rest remained in Moradabad. In 1823 the district of Sahaswán was formed from Moradabad, Bareilly, and Aligarh, and in 1824 Mr. Swetenham was made the first collector. In 1838 the headquarters were removed from Sahaswán to Budaun, and the Aligarh parganahs were transferred to the Etah district in 1845. No change has taken place since then.

In civil jurisdiction the entire district was under the judge of Moradabad from 1801 to 1805 : but when the five parganahs were transferred to Bareilly in 1805, the judge of Bareilly assumed jurisdiction over them. In 1837 the whole district was placed under the judge of Bareilly, and in 1858 the four eastern parganahs were given to the judge of Sháhjahánpur, with whom they still remain.

The sub-judges have jurisdiction conterminous with their judges, and the Judges' criminal jurisdiction goes with their civil.

The generally accepted tradition is that Budh, an Ahir prince, founded Budaun about 905 A.D. His descendants held it till the invasion of Saiyad Sálár Masaud Gházi, nephew of Sultán Mahmud of Ghazni, in 1028 A.D.; he defeated the Hindús, and after great loss established himself in Budaun, but soon afterwards left it again, though many of his followers remained.

In 1178 Shahúb-ud-din Muhammad Ghori became king of Láhor, and in 1186 his viceroy, Kutb-ud-din Aibak, took the fort of Budaun, killed the Rájá, and sacked the city: he appointed Shams-ud-din Altamsh his governor, and this Altamsh became Emperor of Dehli in 1210. In 1215 he defeated the invasion of Taj-ud-din Eldúzi and sent him a prisoner to Budaun.

In 1228 Rukn-ud-din was made governor of Budaun, and in 1236 he too was chosen Emperor of Dehli: he built the Jámah Masjid Shamshi at Budaun.

In 1239 Muiz-ud-din succeeded as Emperor, and gave Budaun to Badr-ud-din, but afterwards had him [murdered] at Dehli.

In 1253 Nasir-ud-din appointed Imád-ud-din governor of Budaun ; the latter rebelled, and was put to death soon afterwards.

In 1266 Ghaiás-ud-din quelled all disturbances in Budaun and put the governor to death.

In 1295 Alú-ud-din having murdered his uncle Firoz Sháh, proceeded by forced marches from Karrah to Budaun, where he collected a force of 60,000 horse, and marching on Dehli expelled Rukn-ud-din, the young son of Firoz Sháh.

Nothing but the names of a few governors is known in the 14th century, but in 1380 Khargu of Katahir broke out into open rebellion and murdered the governor. The king, Firoz Sháh Toghlak, marched against him and devastated the country, but he was not captured, and maintained a struggle for independence for several years.

In 1415 Mahábat Khan, the governor of Budaun, rebelled, and the Emperor Khizr Khan marched against him, but failed to subdue him. In 1426 Mahábat Khan surrendered to Mubárak Sháh, Khizr Khan's successor. Alam Shah visited Budaun in 1446 and 1449. While there in the latter year his vizier joined with Bahlol Lodi and deprived him of all the empire except Budaun which he retained till his death in 1479. His son-in-law Hussen Sháh, king of Jaunpur, then took it; but Bahlol Lodi forced him to give it up. On Sikandar Lodi's accession at Dehli in 1488, he appointed his brother Barbak Sháh governor of Budaun; the latter also became governor of Jaunpur and rebelled, but was pardoned. About 1550 Humáyun appointed governors of Sambhal and Budaun; they quarrelled, and the Sambhal governor besieged Budaun, took it, and put the other to death.

On Akbar's accession Budaun was formed into a Sirkár of Subah Dehli in 1556, and was granted as a feof to Kásim Ali Khan. In 1571 there was a great fire at Budaun, and in Sháhjahán's time the seat of government was removed from Budaun to Bareilly, and Budaun lost its importance.

In 1719, during the reign of Muhammad Sháh, Muhammad Khan Bangash annexed the parganahs of Useth and Budaun to Farokhabad, and the Rohillas under Ali Muhammad took possession of the remainder.

In 1754 the Rohillas recovered Useth and Budaun, but when the Marhattas attacked them they called in the aid of Shujá-ud-daula, the Vazir of Oudh, and agreed to pay him tribute. This they neglected to do, and he attacked them with the help of the English and utterly defeated them at Míranpur Katra, in the Sháhjahánpur district, in 1774, when their leader, Hafiz Rahmat Khan, was killed. Dundi Khan of Budaun had made his peace with the Vazir previously, but the latter soon afterwards attacked him and took possession of Budaun, which remained under the Oudh Government till it was ceded to the English in 1801.

Its history from then till 1857 has been given above. In 1857 the news of the outbreak at Meerut was received on May 15th. On the 1st of

June the treasure guard mutinied, plundered the treasury, and broke open the jail. The civil officers then left for Fatehgarh. The Bareilly mutineers marched in on the 2nd, and on the 17th Abdul Rahim Khán assumed the government of the district. In July and August the Muhammadans had two regular battles with the Thákurs and completely defeated them. At the end of August Captain Gowan and other European fugitives crossed over into the district and were protected at Dátáganj by the landholders; they were finally rescued by Mr. Cracroft Wilson from Meerut in October. On September 28th we took Walidad Khán's fort of Malagarh, and at the end of October he came to Budaun, but passed on to Fatehgarh. On the 5th November the Musalmáns defeated the Ahírs at Gunaur and took possession of the parganah, which our police had hitherto held. On the 28th January, 1858, the rebels under Niaz Muhammad marched on Fatehgarh to attack it, but were met on the 27th by Sir Hope Grant's force and utterly defeated and dispersed at Shamsabad. Niaz Muhammad returned to Budaun. On the 27th April General Penny's force defeated the rebels at Kakrála, and Major Gordon defeated them in the north near Bisauli: their leaders fled to Bareilly, and Mr. Cracroft Wilson appointed managers for the different parganahs on account of the British Government. On the 12th May his Kotwal took possession of Budaun city. On the 27th May Tantia Topi with his fugitive force crossed the district into Oudh. Brigadier Coke's column entered the district on the 3rd June, and Colonel Wilkinson's from Bareilly on the 8th; order was then permanently restored.

25. *Administration.* (a.) *Civil.*—The judge of Sháhjahánpur has civil and criminal jurisdiction over the four eastern parganahs of Salempur, Useth, Budaun, and Ujháni, while the judge of Bareilly holds the same power over the remainder of the district. The sub-judges of Bareilly and Sháhjahánpur have corresponding civil jurisdictions to those of their respective judges. There are five munsifs or native primary civil courts at East Budaun, West Budaun, Dátáganj, Sahaswán, and Bisauli.

(b.) *Revenue and criminal.*—The revenue and criminal jurisdiction is superintended by a magistrate and collector, assisted generally by one joint magistrate and one assistant magistrate, who all three usually are magistrates of the first class, by one deputy magistrate (of first or second class), five tahsildárs or sub-magistrates and sub-collectors (of second or third class), and three special magistrates (of third class). Of these, the magistrate, joint and assistant are Europeans, the rest are natives. There are also a district superintendent of police, an assistant sub-deputy opium agent, and a civil surgeon.

The number of cases decided by each class of courts was :—

Magistrates and assistants	2,163
Collectors and assistants	3,900

The new settlement was begun in 1864, and concluded in 1872 : it has resulted in an increase from £92,822 to £102,944, or by £10,122, and it has cost £1,537.¹

(c.) *Police*.—In the year 1875 the total strength of the regular police force was 671. This number consisted of 1 district superintendent, 83 officers on salaries below Rs. 100, 14 mounted and 309 foot constables, besides 12 officers and 252 men paid from non-provincial revenues. The cost of maintaining this force was £7,409.

The total strength of the police of the Budaun district is one man to every three square miles, and one man to every 1,541 of the whole population.

The cost of maintenance is equal to £3-12-0 per square mile, and 2d. per head of population.

There are 1,990 chaukidars or village watchmen to 2,429 inhabited villages ; their cost is £7,164 ; and there are 413 inhabitants to each watchman.

(d.) *Jails*.—There are a district jail and a magistrate's lock-up at Budaun, besides the ordinary police and tahsíl lock-ups.

(1.) The district jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 323 prisoners, of whom 310 were males and 13 females. It is under the charge of the civil surgeon, who has under him a jailor and 25 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 32-13-0.

The average outturn of labour was Rs. 6.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 961.

The rate of mortality was 0·63 per cent. of average strength.

(2.) The lock-up contained in 1875 a daily average of 40 under-trial prisoners, of whom 39 were males and 1 was female.

(e.) *Postal and Telegraph*.—There are seven imperial and 11 district post-offices in Budaun.

There are four telegraph offices, two on the main line of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway at the stations of Karenghi and Asafpur, and two on the Aligarh branch at the stations of Dhanári and Babrálah.

26.—*Revenue and finance*. The district local funds amounted in 1876 to £11,845, and the expenditure to £11,700.

¹ According to Government Administration Report ; but it is so small that it must mean cost after a certain date.

There were four municipalities in the district ; of these the receipts and expenditure were as follows in 1875 :—

Municipality.	Receipts.		Expenditure.		Incidence of taxation per head.
		£		£	
Budaun	2,985	2,381	0 8 6
Bilsi	421	405	0 9 .5
Ujhoni	642	555	0 7 2
Sahaswáu	1,131	729	0 6 1

The whole amount of revenue raised in the district, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, in 1876 was £151,225, or on a population of 934,348 an incidence per head of 2·2 shillings. Out of this £46,927, or 31 per cent. of the total receipts, was returned to the district in payment for its administration.

27. *Medical statistics.*—There are eight dispensaries in the district, at Budaun, Sahaswáu, Gunaur, Islámnagar, Bisauli, Dátáganj, Usehat, and Bilsi. During the year 1875, 51,632 persons in all were treated in these dispensaries, of whom 49,989 were out-door and 1,643 in-door patients. The total receipts were £876, and total establishment charges £468.

There were 19,151 vaccine operations, of which 16,941 were known to be successful.

The total number of deaths in the year 1875 was 22,052, or 23·60 per 1,000 of the population ; the mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 for the previous six years was 17·10, and the total number of deaths 124,162.

28. *Education.*—There were 336 schools in the district in 1875 with 7,874 scholars, which gives an average area of 5·96 square miles for each school, and a percentage of 84 scholars on the total population.

Education is under the charge of the inspector of the Meerut circle. The superior zila school teaches up to the standard of the entrance examination of the Calcutta University. There is a boarding-house for boys from a distance. The aided schools are under the management of the American Methodist Episcopal Mission.

The total charges for schools in 1875 was £3,679. There was 1 zila superior school, 7 tahsil schools, 92 halkabandi, 8 female, and 8 municipal, besides 2 Anglo-vernacular, 24 female aided schools, and 195 indigenous unaided schools.

29. *Fairs and Chief Towns.*—The principal towns in the district are—(1) Budaun, (2) Sahaswán, (3) Ujháni, (4) Bilsí, (5) Bisauli, and (6) Islámnagar. Gunaur, Dátáganj, and Uséth are all tahsíli headquarters, but can hardly be called towns.

(1.) Budáun is one of the most ancient cities in the province, and is mentioned in 1175 A.D.; it is divided into two parts, the old or fort and the new : the old city is on an eminence, and the river Sot flows beneath its walls. It has a dispensary, a school, and a town-hall.

It has a population of 33,322, occupies 335 square acres, has 99 persons to the acre, and a municipal taxation of Rs. 0-11-6.

(2.) Sahaswán is composed of 11 muhallas, is the headquarters of the tahsíli, and has a munsifi, distillery, and good sarái, also a dispensary and school house.

It has a population of 17,063, occupies 224 square acres, has 76 persons to the acre, and a municipal taxation of Rs. 0-1-11 per head, amounting to £202.

(3.) *Ujháni.*—Eight miles south-west of Budaun, on the Etah road, a municipality and fine large town with a good market.

It has a population of 7,656, occupies 88 acres, has 87 persons to the acre, and a municipal taxation of Rs. 0-11-10 per head.

(4.) *Bilsí.*—The chief town of the parganah, and next to Chandausi in Moradabad, the largest mart in this part of Rohilkhand; it trades with Hárás, Cawnpur, Fatehgarh, and Chandausi. It imports chintz, salt, groceries, iron, brass and copper utensils, pán, &c., and exports sugar, corn, leather, gunny, &c. It has a dispensary and school.

The population is 5,282, it occupies 65 square acres, has 81 persons to the acre, and a municipal taxation of Re. 1-5-0 per head.

(5.) Bisauli, on the high road from Chandausi to Budaun, the seat of a tahsíl and munsifi, and has also a dispensary, school, and police station. It has no trade. It is not included in the census list of towns above 5,000 population, so it must be less than that, and the other details are consequently not known.

(6.) Islámnagar, 12 miles west of Bisauli, on the Sambhal road, the chief town of the parganah formerly called Neodhauna, but changed by the Patháns. It has a population of 5,424, it occupies 61 square acres, has 89 persons to the acre, and a municipal taxation of Rs. 0-5-9 per head.

The chief fairs are—(1) at Kakora on the 15th of Kartik ; about 100,000 people attend this.

(2.) At Cháopur on 15th Kartik ; 20,000 people.

(3.) At Sukhela on 15th Kartik; 10,000 people.

(4.) At Lakhapur on 1st Sunday in Jeth; 7,000 people.

(5.) At Bara Chirra on 1st Sunday in Asarh and Magh; 5,000 people.

30. *Archaeology.* (1.)—There is a large mound at Sahaswán where the fort said to have been built by Rájá Sahasra Babu was situated; but the fort no longer exists, and is said to have been destroyed by Rájá Parásram.

(2.) At Bisauli there are some fine Pathán buildings, a handsome mosque, sarai, and imábarah said to have been built by the Pathán chief Dunde Khan, one of Háfiz Rahmat Khan's sirdars. Dunde Khan also built a palace called the Shish Mahal, but not a vestige of it remains now.

(3.) At Ujháni are several handsome buildings and the mausoleum of Abdulla Khan (second son of Ali Muhammad Khan), who was assigned this parganah, and who had tried to poison Háfiz Rahmat Khan.

(4.) At Badaun remains of ramparts of enormous strength still exist on three sides of the town: a very handsome mosque, which was once a Hindu temple, is in the city; it is of massive stone, and has a dome of great beauty.

A. COTTERELL TUPP.

5-3-'77.

C A W N P O R E.

CAWNPORE.

(KANHPUR.)

A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. *Position and area.*—The district of Cawnpore—bounded on the north-east by the Unao district of Oudh, on the north-west by the Farokhabad and Etawah districts, on the south-west by the Jalaun and Hamírpur districts, and on the south-east by the Fatehpur district—lies between $25^{\circ} 56' 15''$ and $26^{\circ} 57' 0''$ north latitude, and $79^{\circ} 34' 45''$ and $80^{\circ} 38' 0''$ east longitude, and contains an area of 2,336 square miles and a population of 1,156,055 persons, or 495 to the square mile.

2. *Sub-divisions.*—The district is divided into nine tahsillis or sub-collectorates, and ten parganahs, as follows, from south-east to north-west :—

Tahsili.	Parganah.			Revenue, 1876.
1. Ghatampur ...	1. Ghatampur	29,205
2. Sarh Salempur ...	1. Sarh Salempur	22,952
3. Jajmau ...	1. Jajmau	2n,121
4. Bhognipur ...	1. Bhognipur	21,148
5. Akbarpur ...	1. Akbarpur	22,267
6. Shíorajpur ...	1. Shíorajpur	27,484
7. Derapur ...	1. Sikandra	13,873
8. Rasúlábád ...	2. Deramangalpur	13,984
9. Bilhaur ...	1. Rasúlábád	19,575
	2. Bilhaur	19,411
	Total	...		216,022

3. *Physical geography and boundaries.*—The district is roughly of a square shape and is bounded on the north-east side by the Ganges and on the south-west by the Jumna ; the other boundaries are lines running at right angles to the course of these two rivers and connecting them. The south-east boundary leaves the Ganges at the point where the Pandu naddi falls into that river and follows its course for 6 miles, it then turns south-west, and crossing the Pandu 4 miles further on, it reaches the river Rind at about 16 miles from the Ganges ; from here it passes west of the town of Korah-Jahanabad and runs due south for 18 miles to a point on the Jumna 6 miles east of Hamírpur : the south-west boundary follows the course of the Jumna for 80 miles, the river dividing parganahs Ghatampur, Bhognipur, and Sikandra of this district from the Hamírpur and Jalaun districts.

The north-west boundary leaves the Jumna at a point 7 miles west of Sikandra, and running due north for 30 miles, crosses the Bhognipur branch of the Ganges Canal at the 6th mile, the river Sengur at the 10th, the East Indian Railway at the 15th, the Etawah branch of the Ganges Canal at the 18th, the main Ganges Canal at the 22nd mile: thence it turns north-east for 34 miles, and running for 10 miles parallel to the Pandu naddi, crosses the river Isan near Thattia and reaches the Ganges 8 miles north-east of that town: from this point the Ganges forms the north-east boundary, dividing parganahs Bilhaur, Shiorajpur, Jajmau, and Sarh-Salempur from the Unao district of Oudh.

The district of Cawnpore is divided into four distinct portions physically, each of which is a Doab or the tract between two rivers, the most south-west is that between the Jumna and the Sengur, then comes that between the Sengur and the Rind, then that between the Rind and the Pandu, and finally the Doab between the Pandu and the Ganges.

The two rivers Pandu and Rind traverse the district throughout its length, and the Ganges and Jumna bound it throughout its length, while the Sengur cuts off the south-west corner, and the river Isan a strip in the extreme north; so that the whole physical configuration of the district depends entirely on its river system. It also has four distinct lines of canal running through it: they all belong to the system of the Ganges Canal, the first being the Bhognipur branch, which enters the district 6 miles north-west of Sikandra, and about 6 miles north of the Jumna, and running parallel to that river through parganahs Sikandra and Bhognipur, and by both the towns of those names, falls into the Jumna 8 miles south-east of Bhognipur.

The second is the Etawah branch, which, entering the district between the Sengur and the Rind 8 miles north-west of Mangalpur, traverses parganahs Dera Mangalpur (passing east of the Rura station), Akbarpur, and Ghatampur, till it falls into the Jumna 10 miles south-west of Ghatampur and 12 miles east of the embouchure of the Bhognipur branch.

The third is the main line of the Ganges Canal, which, entering the district in parganah Rasulabad just north of the Rind, traverses that parganah, Shiorajpur, Jajmau, and Sarh-Salempur, passing Sachendi and Sarh on its way, till it leaves the district at Arranj, 5 miles north of Korah, and passes into Fatehpur. It is intended to continue this line to Allahabad as the Lower Ganges Canal.

The fourth is the Cawnpore branch, which, entering the district 6 miles south of Thattia and a little north of the Pandu, runs parallel with the course

of that river through parganahs Bilhaur, Shiorájpur, and Bithaur till opposite Cawnpore, when it turns due east and joins the Ganges there.

The district is therefore cut up into eight parallel strips running from north-west to south-east by the four canals and the three rivers : these strips vary from 1 to 12 miles in width and from 25 miles to 60 miles in length.

The whole district is a level plain, only varied by the courses of the rivers and the nallas or ravines which run up from their beds into the surrounding country, often to considerable distances. It slopes slightly from the north-west to the south-east, and all the rivers trend in this direction.

There are no hills or natural elevations of any kind in the district : its average breadth is 60 miles and its average length 70 miles.

Along the Ganges there is an elevated plateau on a cliff of clay soil more or less continuous and well marked ; below this is an alluvial plain through which the river runs. At the opposite side of the district to the south the highest land is between the Sengur and the Jumna.

4. *Rivers.*—The six rivers abovementioned are the only ones of any considerable size in the district, viz., the Ganges, the Jumna, the Pándu, the Rind, the Sengur, the Isan, and the Nún.

(1.) The Ganges reaches the boundary of this district in latitude $26^{\circ} 58'$, 6 miles east of Thattia in Farokhabad. It flows 12 miles south-east past Bilhaur, and then turns south for 10 miles to a point near Shiorájpur ; thence it flows east for 4 miles, and then south-east for 10 miles, till it reaches Bithúr, whence it turns south for 9 miles as far as the city of Cawnpore. After this its course is uniformly south-east for 26 miles past Salempur and the mouth of the river Pándu to Gallahta, where it passes into the Fatehpur district. It is bridged at Cawnpore by the iron girder bridge of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, which has replaced the old bridge of pontoons. It receives the Isan and Pándu rivers as affluents on its south bank, and the Kallíání on the north : the Ganges Canal also enters it at Cawnpore. There are 11 ferries on it.

(2.) The Jumna enters the district in longitude $79^{\circ} 34'$ east : it flows in a winding course, but with a generally south-eastern direction for 84 miles past parganahs Sikandra, Bhognipur, and Ghatampur, till it leaves the district in $80^{\circ} 17'$ east longitude. In this distance it passes the towns of Kalpi and Hamírpur and receives the Nún naddi and the Betwa river on its south bank, and the Sengur on its north. There is a bridge of boats at Kálpi and at Hamírpur, and ferries at seven other places. The river Betwa flows into it three miles before it leaves this district, and increases its volume very much.

(3.) The Isan enters the district in parganah Bilhaur, 3 miles north-east of Thattia in Farokhabad, flows south till opposite Thattia, and then turns south-east for 12 miles till at two miles east of Bilhaur it divides into two branches, one of which runs north and falls into the Ganges near Mahgáon, and the other flows south and joins the Ganges at Matlabpur, 8 miles lower down than the former branch.

The Isan is bridged near Bilhaur on the Cawnpore and Fatehgarh road by a brick bridge of 3 arches of 40' span each.

(4.) The Pándu enters the district in the extreme north of parganah Resúlábád, flows east for 4 miles, and then turns south for 16 miles to near Shiuli, having traversed parganahs Bilhaur and Shiuli. Thence it flows south-east through parganah Bithur for 20 miles, passing 8 miles south-west of Cawnpore. After this it turns south for 12 miles to a point near Sarh, having traversed parganah Jajmau. Hence it flows south-easterly for 14 miles through parganah Sarh Salempur till it enters the Fatchpur district at Parsedhápur : 6 miles further on it turns due north again and forms the boundary between the Fatchpur and Cawnpore districts for 4 miles, and then passing back into the Cawnpore district falls into the Ganges 9 miles south-east of Salempur. It is bridged where the Grand Trunk Road crosses it on the Fatchpur boundary, where the Hamírpur road crosses it near Amlipur in parganah Jajmau, and the Kalpi road near Gaṅgaganj in parganah Bithúr. This last is of three arches of 42' span each.

(5.) The Rind enters the district in the south of parganah Rasúlábád, flows for 20 miles east to the border of Rasúlábád and Shiuli parganahs, and then forms the boundary between them for 4 miles, flowing southerly the while. It then divides Akbarpur from Shiuli for 2 miles, and passing into Akbarpur, flows 22 miles south-east to near Sachendi, where it turns south for 24 miles, forming the boundary between Jajmau on the east and Akbarpur and Ghátampur on the west. Thence it flows 12 miles south-east past Sarh to Maholi, 3 miles north of Korah, where it enters the Fatchpur district. It is bridged on the Kalpi road at Sachendi by a girder bridge of 1 span of 100 feet, and on the Hamírpur road near Dharmpur in parganah Ghátampur by a brick bridge of 3 spans of 40' each.

(6.) The Sengur enters the district 6 miles south-west of Mangalpur, and divides parganah Dera Mangalpur from Sikandra for the first 7 miles when crossing Deramangalpur, and passing by Derapur it forms the boundary between Akbarpur and Bhognipur for 10 miles. Thence it turns south, and after flowing 12 miles through Bhognipur, it falls into the Jumna near Musanagar.

It is bridged on the Kalpi road near Digh by a brick bridge of 4 arches of 40' span.

(7.) The Nún rises in parganah Akbarpur, and flowing through parganah Ghátampur, passes into the Korah parganah of Fatehpur at the village of Haripál, and about 10 miles further on falls into the Jumna near Rithwán. It is bridged on the Hamírpur road.

5. *Lakes.*—No lakes of any great size exist in the district: the largest is one formed by the overflow of the Ganges Canal at Suchendi in parganah Jajmau. There is another at Pámán in parganah Akbarpur, and a third at Jahángirábád, parganah Ghátampur. After the rains the lower levels are occupied with shallow ponds, particularly where the natural drainage lines are intersected by the banks of irrigation channels connected with the Ganges Canal, but these are soon drained dry by the cultivators for irrigating their fields.

In the parganahs of Rasúlábád and Shiorájpur there exists a succession of swamps called "jhábars," running in an irregular line from north-west to south-east for about 25 miles. They ultimately drain into the Rind and Pándu. The water left in them after the rains is used for irrigation of the spring crops, and rice is grown on their beds when partly dried.

6. *Forests and waste lands.*—The course of the Sengur and Jumna rivers is marked by extensive ravines of great depth, which ramify in all directions from the main channel: their soil is almost entirely unculturable, and they have a wild and desolate appearance, which contrasts strongly with the rich and peaceful aspect of the cultivated country above them.

Plains covered with the úsar or reh (saltpetre) deposit are common in the northern part of the district, and land so occupied is useless for cultivation.

There are no forests or other waste lands of any importance except the above.

7. *Geology.*—The whole district is an alluvial plain formed by the two great rivers the Ganges and the Jumna, before they were separated into their present beds. There are two high ridges of land, one running along the Ganges just beyond its flood line, and the other between the Sengur and the Jumna, and afterwards between the Rind and the Jumna.

In the tract between the Ganges and the Rind water is found at from 25 to 30 feet from the surface where the canal has not raised the spring level. Between the Sengur and Nún to the south and the Rind to the north water is plentiful, but south of the Sengur and the Nún water is only found at 60 feet depth, and irrigation from wells is rare.

8. *Climate.*—The average total rainfall was 32·0 inches for the 11 years from 1860 to 1871 ; during this period the maximum was 48·7 inches in 1867 and the minimum was 11·0 inches in 1860.

The climate of Cawnpore is like that of other districts in the Doáb : from the middle of April to the 1st July it is excessively hot and dry, and westerly winds prevail. After this the monsoon from the east is ushered in by damp easterly winds. The rainy season lasts till the end of September or beginning of October ; the cold weather commences about 1st November. The district is on the whole well drained, and is therefore fairly healthy in the rains.

9. *Minerals and trees.*—The only mineral products of the district are an inferior sort of limestone, called “chat,” which is found at Maswánpur near Kalianpur, and Tilsahri near Mahárájpur, and the saltpetre made from the “reh” or saline earth of the “úsar” plains.

Clay suitable for making good bricks is found in most parts of the district, and “kankar” (nodular limestone) for lime-making and road-metalling is very common. The trees used for timber are (1) sál, brought from Bahrámghát in Oudh; (2) teak; (3) shisham or sissu, grown in the district, but the best is brought from Oudh; (4) nim; (5) babúl, used for wheels. No. 1 is used for building, and the rest for furniture, doors, &c.

The tamarind, dhák, and muhuwa are used for fuel ; all the other trees usually found in the Doáb (see “Agra”) are met with in this district.

10. *Animals and birds.*—All the ordinary wild animals of Upper India are found in the district except the tiger and lion. The leopard is rare ; wolves, nilgai, (blue-bulls), antelope, ravine deer, foxes, and jackals are common. Of birds, water-fowl, partridges, peafowl, sand-grouse, and rock-partridge are common ; bustard are found, but are rare.

Cattle are good and abundant in the district. The Kurwaria, a breed of red cattle, exists in the parganahs along the Jumna : they are strong and well-formed, with reddish bodies and white heads. These are worth about £4 a pair, ordinary bullocks fetch about £2 a pair. Some cattle have been bred from English imported bulls, but not as yet in any number.

Fish are common in all the rivers and lakes, and are caught both by net and rod and line ; fifty-six species are known, of which the chief are the hilsa, mahásir, chilwa, pariási, gonch, (river shark), bachwa, rahu, bám, and jhíngá.

11. *Population, &c.*—In the census of 1872 there were 2,336 square miles in the Cawnpore district with 1,985 mauzas, 272,232 houses, and a population of 1,156,055. There were 495 persons and .8 villages to the square mile, 582 persons per village, and 4·2 persons per house. There were 56,759 masonry

houses and 215,473 mud ones. Of the sexes there were 619,118 males and 536,321 females.

The numbers of each religion and sex were as follows :—

Hindus	... { Males	572,262
	{ Females	493,524
					Total	... 1,065,786
						<hr/>
Musalmáns,	... { Males	46,655
	{ Females	42,560
					Total	... 89,215
						<hr/>
Christians,	... { Males	201
	{ Females	237
					Total	... 438
						<hr/>

The percentages of each sex and religion on the total population were as follows :—

Hindus	91·2	Males	53·6
Musalmáns	7·8	Females	46·4

There were 2·6 per cent. persons above 60 years of age and 32,280 males able to read and write. The total agricultural population was 564,010. The area of assessed land was 748 square miles, of which 236 were uncultivable, 1,351 cultivable, and 2,336 cultivated. There was no uncultivable unassessed land. The amount of land revenue was £213,739, the rates and cesses on land £21,381, and the incidence of the land revenue per culturable acre was Rs. 2-1-7. The percentage of agricultural on total population was 48·8.

The numbers of the chief Hindu castes and Musalmán tribes were as follows :—

Hindus	... { Brahmans	163,384
	{ Rajputas	92,523
	{ Banias	37,451
	{ Ahirs	118,053
	{ Chamars	122,932
	{ Kaiaths	15,169
	{ Kurmis	58,359
	{ Shekhs	64,797
Musalmáns,	... { Saiads	5,951
	{ Moghals	1,631
	{ Pathans	16,801

The numbers of males above fifteen in each of the six great classes of occupations were—

Professional	1,864
Domestic	50,510
Commercial	11,537
Agricultural	205,201
Industrial	68,128
Indefinite	83,591
				Total	...	<u>415,831</u>

There were altogether 1,985 inhabited villages and towns, of which 530 contained less than 200 inhabitants ; 786 less than 500 ; 420 less than 1,000 ; 291 less than 2,000 ; 47 less than 3,000 ; 9 less than 5,000 ; one less than 10,000 ; and one above 20,000.

The following figures show the comparative results of the censuses of 1853, 1865, and 1872:—

Area.—This was in 1853, 2,348 square miles ; in 1865, 2,366 ; and in 1872, 2,336 ; it therefore increased by 18, or '8 per cent., in the first twelve years, and decreased by 30, or 1·3 per cent., in the latter seven years, or decreased by 1·2 square miles, or '5 per cent., in the whole nineteen years.

Population.—The total population in 1853 was 1,174,556 ; in 1865, 1,192,836 ; in 1872, 1,156,055 : it therefore increased by 18,208, or 1·5 per cent., from 1853 to 1865, and decreased by 36,781, or 3·1 per cent., from 1865 to 1872 ; in the whole period of nineteen years it decreased 18,501, or 1·6 per cent.

The annual rate of increase in the first period was '12 per cent., and the decrease in the second period '4 per cent., so that in the whole period there was an annual decrease of '03 per cent. This district, contrary to the usual habit of other districts, increased considerably in the first period, and then decreased by just double as much in the second.

Sex.—There were of males in 1853, 622,093 ; in 1865, 639,216 ; and in 1872, 619,118 : they therefore increased in the first period by 17,123, or 2·7 per cent., and decreased in the second period by 20,098, or 3·2 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years decreased by 2,975, or '4 per cent.

There were of females in 1853, 552,463 ; in 1865, 553,620 ; and in 1872 536,321 : they therefore increased in the first period by 1,157, or '2 per cent., and in the second decreased by 17,299, or 3·2 per cent., while in the whole nineteen years they decreased by 16,142, or 3·0 per cent.

The proportion of males to females was—

1·12 to 1 in 1853

1·14 „ 1 „ 1865

1·15 „ 1 „ 1872

The proportion of males therefore increased steadily, but very slightly, throughout the whole period.

The males increased by 2·7, and decreased by 3·2, or ·4 on the whole. The females increased by ·2 in the first period, and decreased by 3·2 in the second period, and in the whole nineteen years decreased by 3·0 per cent.; so that in the first period the males increased 14 times as fast as the females, whereas in the second period the males and females decreased equally, and in the whole nineteen years the females decreased seven times as fast as the males.

The annual rates were—

	Decrease per cent.		Increase per cent.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
In the first period	...			
In the second period	·46	·46	·22	·017
In the whole period	·021	·16

12. *Religion.*—There were of Hindús in 1853, 1,085,132; in 1865, 1,099,093; in 1872, 1,065,786: they therefore increased in the first period by 13,961, or 1·2 per cent., and decreased in the second period by 33,307, or 3·1 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years decreased by 19,346, or 1·8 per cent.

There were of Musalmáns in 1853, 89,424; in 1865, 89,769; and in 1872, 89,215: they therefore increased in the first period by 345, or 3 per cent., and decreased in the second period by 554, or ·6 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years decreased by 209, or ·2 per cent.

The proportion of Hindús to Musalmáns was therefore—

12·13 to 1 in 1853

12·24 „ 1 „ 1865

11·94 „ 1 „ 1872

The proportion of Hindús therefore increased slightly between 1853 and 1865, and again fell below its first level by 1872.

The Hindús increased by 1·2, and decreased by 3·1, or 1·8 per cent. on the whole; the Musalmáns increased by ·3, and decreased by ·6 and ·2 per cent. on the whole; so that in the first period the Hindús increased four times as fast as the Musalmáns, and in the second period they decreased five times as fast, while on the whole they decreased nine times as fast. The Hindús increased

by '1 per cent. per annum in the first period, and decreased by '4 per cent. per annum in the second, and '09 per cent. on the whole ; while the Musalmáns increased by '02 per cent. per annum in the first period, and decreased by '08 per cent. per annum in the second, and '01 on the whole.

13. *Land revenue.*—In 1853 the land revenue was Rs. 21,44,075, in 1865 Rs. 21,44,466, and in 1872 Rs. 21,37,397 : it therefore increased by Rs. 391, or '01 per cent., during the first period, and decreased by Rs. 7,069, or '3 per cent., during the second, while the total decrease was Rs. 6,678, or '3 per cent., in the whole nineteen years.

The increase was therefore '0008 per cent. per annum from 1853 to 1865, and the decrease '043 per cent. per annum from 1865 to 1872, and '016 per cent. per annum from 1853 to 1872.

Number of mauzas.—This was 2,257 in 1853 ; in 1865, 2,272 ; and in 1872, 1,985 : therefore the mauzas increased by 15, or '6 per cent., from 1853 to 1865, and decreased by 287, or 14·5 per cent., from 1865 to 1872, the total diminution in number in the whole nineteen years being 272, or 13·7 per cent., or '7 per cent. per annum.

Persons per square mile.—In 1853 there were 500 persons per square mile ; in 1865, 504 ; and in 1872, 495 : the density of population therefore increased by 4, or '8 per cent., in the first period of twelve years, or '06 per cent. per annum ; it decreased by 9 during the second period of seven years, or by 1·8 per cent., or '2 per cent. per annum ; it decreased by 5, or 1·0 per cent., or '05 per cent. per annum in the whole period of nineteen years.

This district therefore decreased less than any of those which decreased at all, except Jalaun.

14. *Town and village population.*—There are only two towns which by the census of 1872 had a population of more than 5,000, viz., Cawnpore with 122,770 and Bilhaur with 5,954. Cawnpore is the third largest city in the North-Western Provinces, and there are 5 or 6 other good sized towns of from 4,000 to 6,000 inhabitants, but beyond these there are no towns of any size, and the population is scattered about in small villages. Thus out of the 1,985 inhabited places in the district, 530, or more than a fourth, contain less than 200 inhabitants, and 1,316, or two-thirds, contain less than 500 inhabitants, while 1,736, or seven-eighths, contain less than 1,000.

There are no walled or fortified places in the district. The houses in villages are nearly always built of mud, but in towns a good many are of burnt bricks set in mud or occasionally in mortar,

15. *Value of house and furniture.*—The cost of building a house for the best class may be considered to be from £200 upwards, of the 2nd class from £15 to £150, and of the third class from £1 to £10. A trader's house of the better class contains generally about £50 worth of furniture and utensils of all kinds : bedsteads, mattresses, quilts, carpets, and boxes would represent about £30 worth of this, and cooking vessels the remainder.

A well-to-do cultivator owns a few strong boxes, bedsteads, and quilts worth about £10, besides cooking vessels worth £5 or £6. An artizan in middling circumstances possesses one or two cots and quilts, and some drinking and cooking vessels, worth altogether about £3.

A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars, one or two quilts, and perhaps a bedstead, worth in all 10 shillings to a pound.

The houses of the lower classes of this district are generally built of clay piled up moist and allowed to dry, and roofed with grass or earth laid on sticks as a terraced roof. Tiled roofs are common in the cities, but not in the villages. The better class of village landowners and money-lenders build their houses of sun-dried bricks, sometimes with an upper room, and roofed with a terrace of clay. Brick houses are only met with in cities and towns ; the bricks are generally laid in clay and covered with plaster as a protection from the weather. Two and three storied houses built in this way are not uncommon, and they are generally built round a court.

16. *Trades-unions.*—As in other districts, there are no organized trades-unions in the English sense of the word, but the powerful caste pancháyats answer very much the same purpose. Questions and disputes of a domestic nature, or affecting the social arrangements of classes and castes, disputes regarding petty debts or the occupancy of lands for tillage, are adjudicated on by pancháyats. A representative man is appointed by the chief persons of each trade, caste, or class residing in a town or in a cluster of villages, and these representatives summon the pancáhyat when any question of the above nature comes up for decision. Authority to inflict fines is delegated to them, and this is always done in the shape of compelling the delinquent to feast his caste brethren. The pancháyat decides when a man should be put out of caste and the terms of his re-admission.

In India the domestic concerns of every man are brought into unavoidable contact with those of his neighbour. The exclusiveness and privacy of individual life, as it exists in Europe, is not known among the Hindús, and it follows that the lower a man of respectability is in the social scale, the less is he able to set his neighbour's opinion at defiance, and the more amenable he becomes

to the authority of the pancháyat : while the richer classes are able to indulge in the luxury of litigation for the settlement of their disputes. Every trade has also its chaudhris or headmen, who take a small fee on all business transacted with their assistance.

17. *Village communities.*—The villages in this district, as in nearly all in the North-West, may be classified into three kinds, according to the modes in which the land is held and the Government revenue paid :—

Zamindari.—Where the whole of the land belongs to several owners in joint occupation, one (or more) of the owners is usually selected by the rest to manage the estate and to collect the Government revenue and pay it in to Government ; in these villages there are no pattis or separate shares of land marked off from the rest, but each proprietor owns a defined proportion of the total produce of the estate.

Imperfect pattidari.—Where the village is partly held by several owners in joint occupation, and partly by several owners in severalty or separate occupation. Here the tenure is partly of the first class and partly of the third class, and each portion is managed as if it were a separate estate belonging to that class.

Pattidari.—Where the land has been completely divided amongst the sharers, and is held by several owners in severalty, but under one tenure as regards the Government. Here the land and homesteads are entirely divided off to each owner, but the whole estate remains liable for the Government revenue or any part of it.

There is also a fourth kind of estate called bhaiachára, where, though it belongs to the 2nd or 3rd class, the rights and interest of each co-sharer are not determined by his ancestral share, but by custom or possession. In all these classes of estates the settlement of the revenue to be paid to Government is a joint settlement, *i.e.*, all the co-sharers are responsible for the fulfilment of the contract, and all the co-sharers, jointly and severally, and the entire estate are responsible for the whole revenue.

The village communities in this district of course differ in no respect from those of the other Doáb districts, such as have been fully described under “Allahabad.” There are always first the body of landowners, generally Thákurs or Brahmans; secondly, the old hereditary cultivators who possess rights of occupancy and are often descendants or dependants of the former landowners; thirdly, the shopkeepers, baniahs, petty bankers ; and fourthly, the cultivators who are mere tenants-at-will, and the village servants and artizans, such as the accountant, the barber, the carpenter, the potter, the smith, the tailor, the

shoemaker, the washerman, the tanner, the scavenger, the water-carrier, and the watchman. All these occupations are of course more or less hereditary, owing to the system of caste.

18. *Condition of the people.*—Among the Hindús of the district the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the first class, or having incomes over £100 a year, £90 to £180; (2) for those in the second class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 a year, about £18 to £60; and (3) for those in the third class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns it would be rather more, as their habits are somewhat more expensive. The people are very frugal, as a rule, and a man's means are the measure of the quantity and kind of food he eats; those whose means are very small undoubtedly eat less than their richer neighbours, without respect to profession or caste; 1½lb. of food a day is a fair average amount for a person of moderate means. The condition of the agricultural classes in this district is decidedly below the average, and much inferior to that of the Benares division. The revenue assessment was fixed high 30 years ago, and this has pressed heavily on all classes since, and has caused a considerable number of estates to change hands.

19. *Character of the soil.*—The soil consists of the three kinds ordinarily found in the Doáb and neighbouring districts, viz., (1) dumat, or clay and sand; (2) bangar, or bhur, or balwa, or sandy; and (3) mattiar, or rich clay.

The whole of the district is liable to re-assessment for Government revenue, there being no permanently settled estates, except where muáfis or alienations of the revenue have been made for special purposes, generally as rewards for good service. Between the Sengur and the Nún naddis and the Jumna the character of the country changes. Waste tracts and depressions holding water mark this tract; the soil is either a peculiar light soil, unlike that of other parts of the district, or stiffens into a hard stratum called kábar, which is somewhat like the black soil of Bundelkhand. Rain converts this into a thick tenacious clay, which, however, is so absorbent that it speedily dries and becomes exceedingly hard. The real már soil is found in patches and is very fertile.

20. *Course of tillage.*—There are two harvests, the kharif or autumn one, and the rabbi or spring one. The kharif crops are sown in June, directly the first rain falls, and are harvested in October and November, and some of the rice in September, or even as early as the end of August; but cotton is not ripe for picking till February. Besides cotton and rice they include bajra, jowar, mot, &c. The rabbi crops are sown in October and November, and

reaped in March and April : they consist of corn, barley, oats, vetch and peas, and dál or arhar. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both crops ; land is allowed to lie fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it; and, as a rule, spring and autumn crops are not taken off the same land, but sometimes a crop of rice is taken in the autumn and another crop of some kind in the spring.

The staple crop of the district is wheat, but since the American war the cultivation of cotton has received a great impulse ; the foreign staples have not succeeded in their competition with the native. Besides wheat, the chief crops are barley, maize, pulses, millets, oilseeds, indigo, opium, spices, tobacco, sugarcane, potatoes, and other vegetables. The indigo is now chiefly grown for seed, and not for producing the dye. Safflower and hemp are also grown.

21. *Years of scarcity.*—The famine of 1770 affected all the Lower Doáb, and Cawnpore suffered like other districts, but was the most westerly of those which felt it. In 1783-84 both autumn and spring crops failed, and the people and cattle died in thousands : the famine was worst across the Jumna, and the starving crowds from Bundelkhand crossed into Cawnpore only to die. It continued till June, 1784, when rain fell.

The famine of 1803-4 was felt most severely in Cawnpore, though it was not as bad as that of 1783. The autumn crop almost entirely failed, but a little was saved by rain in September.

There was no winter rain, and the spring crops, though sown, never grew up : by February they had perished throughout the district except in Kanauj (now in Farokhabad), and £18,082 of the revenue were remitted.

The famine of 1837 visited this district with frightful severity. During July, August, and September no rain fell, and not a blade of grass was produced : the cattle died in thousands, and whole villages were depopulated. The par-ganahs along the Ganges suffered most, and though revenue was remitted and relief works were started, immense tracts of arable land fell out of cultivation, as there were neither men nor cattle left to cultivate them. A little of the autumn crops escaped along the Jumna, and a few patches were cultivated for the spring crops by means of irrigation.

The Government grant for the famine in this district was £4,400, and revenue to the amount of £171,097 was remitted.

The famine though worse along the Ganges in the autumn of 1837, was much worse along the Jumna in the spring of 1838, as no rain fell after October, and water was too deep for wells to be dug.

The famine of 1860-61 was worst in the Upper Doáb and Rohilkhand, and was not severely felt as far east as Cawnpore : but there was sufficient

scarcity to put pressure on the lower classes, and burglaries and thefts were much more frequent than usual.

The scarcity of 1868-69 was felt to a certain extent in Cawnpore, particularly along the Jumna.

The Bengal famine of 1873-74, which affected the eastern districts of these provinces, did not reach as far west as Cawnpore.

22. Communications and Trade. (a) *Railways*.—The East Indian Railway crosses the whole breadth of the district, entering it at Purwa Mir on the river Pandu and passing through parganahs Sarh-Salempur, Jajmau, Bithúr, Akbarpur, and Dera Mangalpur, till it leaves the district two miles west of the Jhinjhak station. There are five stations on it in this district, viz.—

1. Cawnpore, 1 mile south of Cawnpore city.
2. Sirsaul, 18 miles east " "
3. Bhaupur, 14 west " "
4. Rura, 27 " " "
5. Jhinjhak, 39 " " "

The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway sends its Cawnpore branch across the river Ganges by a girder bridge, and has a station at Cawnpore.

(b.) *Metalled roads*.—(1) The Grand Trunk Road, which enters the district at the bridge across the river Pandu and traverse sparganahs Sarh-Salempur, Jajmau, Bithúr, Shiorájpur, and Bilhaur, leaving the district at Gangpur, six miles north-east of Thattia. It runs throughout parallel to the Ganges at a distance of from one to five miles. Its whole length in the district is sixty-four miles.

(2.) The Kálpi road runs forty-eight miles south-west from Cawnpore, crossing the Ganges Canal at Suchendi, the Etawah branch near Akbarpur, and the river Sengur near Digh. It then runs due south by Bhognipur to the Jumna opposite Kálpi, and crosses the river by a pontoon bridge.

(3.) The Hamírpur road runs thirty-nine miles due south from Cawnpore, through parganahs Jajmau and Ghátampur, passing the town of the latter name. At Hamírpur it crosses the Jumna by a bridge of boats.

(c.) *Unmetalled roads raised and bridged*.—(1.) From Mahárájpur on the Grand Trunk Road via Sarh to Ghátampur, 23 miles north-east to south-west.

(2.) From Rasúlábád via Mangalpur to Sikandra, 24 miles north and south.

(3.) From Kora-Jahanabad in the Fatehpur border via Ghátampur, Musanagar, Bhognipur, and Sikandra, to the western border six miles beyond

it. This is 52 miles long, and is the old Moghal road from Agra to Allahabad. It is carried over the river Sengur by a fine bridge.

(4.) From Bithúr on the Ganges westward via Chaubepur and Shiuli to Rasúlábád, 34 miles.

(5.) From Bárá Khás on the Kálpi road via Akbárpur and Derapur to Mangalpur, 26 miles north-west.

Trade.—Saddlery, boots, and other leather articles are made largely in Cawnpore, and the trade is flourishing. The Elgin and Mayo Cotton Mills afford employment to a large number of persons, and the yarn twisted in them supplies the native weavers with material for their trade. Leather goods, cotton cloths, and tents are largely exported from the district.

Cawnpore has for some years been increasing to the prejudice of other local markets, such as Farokhábád. It has long been the entrepôt for commerce arriving from Oudh, Rohilkhand, those parts of the Doáb distant from the railway, Bundelkhand, and the Lower Doáb. Its trade, however, shows signs of decline from the development of the railway system, which has tended to scatter the trade and to multiply local centres of commerce.

A great deal of country produce, such as grain, indigo seed, wood, hides, &c., is conveyed by the Ganges and Jumna.

23. *Money-lending, wages, and prices.*—The bankers and large traders of Cawnpore are chiefly Khattris and Baniahs. They have agencies at Calcutta, Patna, Benares, Mirzapur, Allahabad, Agra, and Háthras, and themselves act as agents for other firms at those places : there are also several large banking firms in the district.

The rates of interest at present (1877) charged in the district are as follows :—

- (a.) In small transactions, when articles are pawned, from 12 to 15 per cent.
- (b.) In small transactions, when personal security is given, from 18 to 37 per cent.
- (c.) In large transactions, when jewels, &c., are pledged, from 6 to 12 per cent.
- (d.) When bankers lend money to bankers on personal security, 6 to 9 per cent.
- (e.) When land is mortgaged, from 9 to 18 per cent.

The rates of wages are as follows :—

- (a.) Coolies and unskilled town labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ pence a day.
- (b.) Agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 pence a day.
- (c.) Bricklayers and carpenters, 6 pence to 2 shillings a day.

Female labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men.

Boys of from 12 to 16 get two-thirds of the wages of full-grown men; boys younger than that and girls from one-half to one-third.

The current prices of the articles of food during 1876 were as follows:—

		<i>Number of seers (2lbs.) for a rupee (2s.)</i>			
		1st April.	1st August.	1st December.	Average.
Wheat	...	27	25	22	24
Rice	...	11	11	11	11
Jowár	...	43	...	35	39
Bajra	...	37	30	29	32
Dál	...	32	31	22	28

24. *History.*—Under the Muhammádan rule the district of Cawnpore formed part of two Subahs—Allahabad and Agra. Under the former was the Sirkar of Kora, which contained the present parganahs of Jajman, Sarh-Salempur, and Ghátampur. Under the latter were the Sirkars of Kalpi and Kanauj. That of Kalpi included Dera Mangalpur and Bhognipur; that of Kanauj contained Akbarpur, Shiorajpur, Bilhaur, and Rasúlábád.

The district had no separate existence till 1801, but the tract it comprises fell into the hands of Safdar Jang, the Nawáb Vazir of Oudh, in 1747. It was farmed by him to several persons, and at the end of the 18th century was held by Ilmás Ali Khan, a powerful dependant of his.

The city of Cawnpore was first formed when the Nawáb of Oudh, Shuja-ud-daula, being defeated at Buxár in October, 1764, and at Kora in May, 1765, concluded a treaty by which he agreed to pay 50 lakhs of rupees and to allow two cantonments for English troops to be established in his dominions, one at Cawnpore, and the other at Fatehgarh.

The troops were at first stationed at Bilgram, and were not transferred to Cawnpore till 1778; they consisted of a brigade of the Company's troops paid by the Nawáb Vazir.

By the treaty of November, 1801, the Nawáb Vazir ceded the Lower Doáb to the English, and a district called Cawnpore was formed, which contained besides the present district the parganahs of Uraiya (Etáwah), Kanauj (Farukhabad), and Kora (Fatehpur), which were afterwards separated from it.

The revenue assessed on the district by the English was the same as had been demanded by Ilmás Ali Khan, the last chakladár under the Nawáb. The district had suffered greatly under the system of farming the revenue; the landed proprietors had a most precarious tenure of their estates, and the peasants, unprotected from exactions, were reduced to great misery. The board of commissioners to settle the ceded provinces was appointed in 1801, and the Hon'ble H. Wellesley was president. The first collector of Cawnpore was appointed in 1802, and he raised the revenue by £23,176. The great famine of 1803-4 succeeded, and in 1805 no less than 238 estates were sold for arrears of revenue, and others were put up which could find no purchasers, so that the district was at this time totally disorganized. A fresh settlement was then made with a reduction of £11,458, and even then 70 more estates were sold.

In 1807 the revenue was still further reduced by £8,168, and even then estates paying $2\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs were obliged to be let on farm. This settlement remained in force till that of 1842 was made, and the latter was only superseded by the new settlement which is still unfinished. By that of 1842 the demand was reduced by £14,071, and was fixed at £213,607 for the whole district. The new settlement was begun in 1871, and will probably be concluded in 1878. It has at present resulted in an increase of the revenue from £150,578 to £151,537, or by £959, and it has cost £28,998.

During the mutiny of 1857, though we never lost possession of the district for more than a few days, we yet had to maintain a struggle with the rebels from May to December, 1857.

The news of the Meerut outbreak was received at Cawnpore on the 14th of May. There were then only 165 European soldiers, and the European civil population amounted to about 600. On the 17th the artillery was moved up to the European barracks, and a company of the 32nd Europeans was sent over from Lucknow. The native troops were the 2nd Light Cavalry and the 1st, 53rd, and 54th Regiments Native Infantry.

On the 26th May the Náná of Bithúr, Dundhu Pant, was placed in charge of the treasury. On the 29th the 2nd Oudh Irregular Cavalry murdered two officers at Mainpuri, and when this news reached Cawnpore, General Wheeler ordered the barracks of the 32nd to be intrenched: provisions and a lakh of rupees were brought into the entrenchment, and all Europeans slept there. On the 6th June the 2nd Cavalry and 1st Native Infantry took possession of the treasury, broke open the jail, and burnt the public offices. They then marched out one stage on the road to Dehli, and were joined by the 53rd and 54th. The Náná went out to their camp and persuaded them to return. On the 7th June

he commenced his attack on the entrenchments with a cannonade ; the entrenchment was merely the two barracks of the 32nd surrounded by a ditch with the earth dug out thrown up as a parapet 5 feet high. For three days a constant cannonade was kept up, but the rebel ammunition became exhausted, and on the 11th fire slackened.

Though picquets of the garrison had taken possession of some of the unfinished barracks, the whole position became quite untenable by the 26th June, when the garrison, after losing more than 100 men, determined to capitulate. The Náná promised to send them to Allahabad, and on the 27th they marched out to the Satti Chaura Ghát and got into the boats, but they were fired on immediately, and 28 boats out of the 30 never started at all, all in them being taken prisoners or killed. Of the other two, one was at once swamped by a round shot, but those in it got into the only remaining boat, which proceeded with its freight of 50 Europeans down the river. It was fired at from both banks, and at last grounded 14 miles down the river, when it was attacked by the mutineers, but they were driven off and returned to Cawnpore. By daylight on the 28th it reached Shiorájpur in the Fatehpur district, where 14 Europeans landed and found two whole regiments ready to attack them. They took refuge in a small temple, but were soon driven out with fire and gunpowder. They at last sallied out, and seven were killed immediately : the other seven plunged into the Ganges ; two were shot very soon, and the third drifting near the bank was murdered : the remaining four, of whom three were wounded, swam six miles down the Ganges, and were then rescued by the retainers of Mahárája Drig Bije Singh, who kept them till the 28th of July, when he delivered them in safety to the English force at Bithaura in Fatehpur. Lieutenants Mowbray Thomson and Delafosse and two privates were the four who escaped. Most of those who remained at the ghát when the boats were fired were murdered on the spot, and the rest were carried off to the Saváda Kothi, where they were all murdered by the Náná's orders when he heard the sound of Havelock's guns outside Cawnpore : with them were murdered the 80 who had been brought back from Shiorájpur when the boat grounded ; and about 200 bodies in all were taken out of the well into which they had been thrown. Havelock fought the battles of Aung and the Pandu naddi on the 15th July, and on the 16th took Cawnpore by storm : on the 17th and 18th we recovered possession of the city, and on the 19th we utterly destroyed Bithúr and all the Náná's palaces, but he himself escaped. On the 20th General Neill arrived with 400 more Europeans, and on the 21st our army began to cross into Oudh. Havelock defeated the rebels at Unáo on the 29th, and at Basiratganj on the 30th, but was then compelled to

retire ; on the 4th August he began his second advance on Lucknow, but though he defeated the rebels again at Basiratganj, he was again forced to retire. He a third time advanced, but was a third time driven back, and crossed to Cawnpore on the 10th August. On the 16th he retook Bithúr, and on the 19th General Outram arrived with the 5th Fusiliers and the 90th Regiment : on the 20th they reached Basiratganj and defeated the rebels ; on the 24th we reached the Alambágh, and on the 25th pushed through the city to the residency and relieved it : but our army was besieged there till finally relieved by Lord Clyde in November. Lord Clyde's column left Cawnpore for Lucknow on the 19th October, and on the 26th Colonel Greathed's avenging column reached Cawnpore and passed on to Lucknow. About the 24th November the Gwalior mutineers crossed the Jumna into the Cawnpore district, and on the 26th General Windham marched out to attack them and defeated them 10 miles from Cawnpore, but next day being joined by a large force of Oudh rebels, they attacked Cawnpore and obtained possession of the city, which they held till Lord Clyde marched in on the evening of the 28th. On the 6th December he attacked and utterly defeated them, taking all their guns. General Walpole then took a column through the district, restoring order in Akbarpur, Rasúlabad, and Derapur ; and when Lord Clyde advanced to Fatehgarh order was restored in Shioríjpur and Bilhaur, but no Government servants could be posted to Bhognipur and Sikandra till after the fall of Kálpi in May, 1858, when order was restored throughout the district, and when Firoz Sháh fled through it in December, 1858, it caused no disturbance.

25. *Administration.*—Cawnpore is the headquarters of a civil and sessions judge, who has under him the district of Fatehpur also. It is in the division of Allahabad, and is the most westerly of the districts in that division.

(a.) *Criminal and Revenue.*—The ordinary staff of the district consists of a magistrate and collector, two joint magistrates, an assistant magistrate, and two deputy magistrates and collectors. Besides these there are now (1877) a settlement officer and three settlement deputy collectors. There are also nine tahsildars or sub-magistrates and sub-collectors, and two special magistrates with local powers.

All the deputy collectors but one, and all the sub-magistrates and special magistrates are natives, the rest are Europeans. The magistrate, joint magistrates, and one deputy magistrate have 1st class powers ; the assistant magistrate and the other deputy magistrate either 1st or 2nd class, and the sub-magistrates either 2nd or 3rd class ; the special magistrates, as a rule, have only 3rd class powers. There are also an assistant sub-deputy opium agent, an inspector

of customs, a district superintendent of police, a cantonment magistrate, and a civil surgeon.

(b.) *Civil.*—The civil judge has under him one sub-judge and three munsifs stationed at Cawnpore, Shioréjpur, and Akbarpur. In 1875 the total cost to the State of these civil courts (including Fatehpur) was £7,006, and the amount realized by court fees and stamps was £10,160. The number of cases decided by each class of courts was—

Civil courts	4,438
Criminal courts	3,978
Revenue courts	2,900

The average value of the property under litigation in the civil courts was £21.

(c.) *Police.*—In the year 1875 the total strength of the district regular police force was 986. This number consisted of 1 district superintendent, 1 assistant superintendent, 148 officers under the rank of inspector, 26 mounted and 810 foot constables. The cost of maintaining this force was £11,345. The total strength of the police is one man to every 2·39 square miles, and one man to every 1,171 persons in the total population. The cost of maintenance is equal to £4·7 per square mile, or 2·4 pence per head of the population.

In 1871 there were 2,985 village chaukidars or watchmen, or one to every 350 inhabitants; in 1876 there were the same number.

There are a district jail and a magistrate's lock-up at Cawnpore, besides the ordinary police and tahsili lock-ups.

(1.) The district jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 371 prisoners, of whom 343 were males and 28 females. It is under the charge of the civil surgeon, who has under him a jailor and 30 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 33-10.

The average outturn of labour was Rs. 12.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 1,510.

The rate of mortality was 4·27 per cent. of average strength.

(2.) The lock-up contained in 1875 a daily average of 54 under-trial prisoners, of whom 50 were males and 4 were females.

Postal and Telegraph.—There are 29 imperial post-offices and 4 local post offices in the district, and in 1876 there were 89 letters per head of population and 31·94 letters per educated man. There are 5 telegraph offices in the district at the 5 stations of the East Indian Railway, viz., Cawnpore itself, Sirsaul, 13 miles east, and Bhaupur, Rurá, and Jhinjhak, 14, 27, and 39 miles west of Cawnpore.

26. *Revenue and Finance.*—The district local funds amounted in 1875 to £ and the expenditure to £ .

There is only one municipality in the district; of this the receipts and expenditure were as follows in 1875:—

Municipality.	Receipts.	Expenditure	Incidence of taxation per head.
	£	£	Rs. a. p.
Cawnpore ...	11,193	10,977	0 11 9

The whole amount of revenue raised in the district, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, in 1876 was £ , or on a population of 1,201,656¹ an incidence per head of shillings: out of this or per cent. of the total receipts was returned to the district in payment for its administration.

27. *Medical Statistics.*—There are 6 dispensaries in this district, viz., at Cawnpore, Nawabganj, Generalganj, Bhognipur, Ghátampur, and Derapur, the three first being in the city and station. During the year 1875, 24,942 persons were treated in these dispensaries, of whom 612 were in-door patients and 24,330 out-door. The total receipts were £902, and the expenditure on establishment £403.

The total number of deaths in the year 1875 was 26,790, or 23·10 per 1,000 of the population: the mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 during the previous six years was 25·55.

There were 28,012 persons vaccinated in 1875, and the operations were successful in 21,651 cases.

28. *Education.*—There were 377 schools in the district in 1875 with 11,060 scholars, which gives an average area of 6·19 square miles for each school, and a percentage of '95 scholars on the total population.

There are Anglo-vernacular schools at Bilhaur, Derapur, Rasúlabad, Akbarpur, and Ghátampur.

There are 25 female schools in the district. The cost of all the schools was £7,295 in 1876, of which £2,781 was paid from provincial revenues, and £4,514 from local sources.

29. *Fairs and Chief Towns.*—The following towns are the most important, and have had a population of over 5,000 in either the 1865 or 1872 census:—

(1.) Cawnpore on the Ganges. Population 122,770 (all details will be given in the article on the city of Cawnpore).

¹ Corrected to 1876.

(2.) Bilhaur in parganah Bilhaur on the Grand Trunk Road, 4 miles from the Ganges and 1 from the Isan, 34 miles north-west of Cawnpore. Population 5,954. Area 307 square acres.

(3.) Akbarpur in parganah Akbarpur, 28 miles south-west of Cawnpore, one mile west of the Etawah branch of the Ganges Canal, and 3 miles west of the Kálpi road. Population 5,497.

(4.) Bithúr on the Ganges, 12 miles north-west of Cawnpore in parganah Jajmau. Population 8,322. This town was the residence of the deposed Peshwa of the Dekhan, Báji Ráo, and of his adopted son, the Náná Dundhu Pant, the rebel leader in 1857.

(5.) Káshipur in parganah Shiorájpur on the river Rind, 24 miles north-west of Cawnpore. Population 5,156.

(6.) Suchendi in parganah Jajmau, on the Kálpi road, 14 miles south-west of Cawnpore, and on the Ganges Canal. Population 5,496.

Fairs.—(1.) There are two fairs at Makhanpur, one on the first day of the Holi festival, and one in the month of Jamád-ul-awal. At the former a large number of horses and cattle are sold.

(2.) There is a bathing fair at Bithúr on the Ganges at the full moon in November. The chief ghát is called Bramhá Ghát, and is sacred to Bramhá. Báji Ráo, the ex-Peshwa of the Dekhan, and his adopted son, the Náná Dundhu Pant, lived here.

(3.) There is a fair at Gajner, parganah Akbarpur, in Jeth, where a good many cattle are sold and bought.

(4.) There is a fair at the temple of Mahádeo at Bamparah Maháráj, in parganah Rasúlabad, at the Shiorátri in February.

30. *Archaeology.*—(1.) At Bithúr on the Ganges there is a fine ghát built by Rájá Tikait Rai, minister of Gházi-ud-din Haidar, Nawáb of Oudh. It has an imposing Saracenic arcade on the upper platform. The clusters of gháts, temples, and dwelling houses on the Ganges bank are picturesque and remarkable.

(2.) At Chapparghatta there are the remains of an extensive brick sarai of very solid construction, which was built in Aurangzeb's time.

(3.) At Bamparah Maháráj in parganah Rasúlabad there is a temple of Mahádeo of great antiquity; the image in the temple is believed by the Hindús to have been placed there by Beneshar, a Rachat who lived in the third age.

(4.) At Khereshar, in Chattarpur, 1½ mile from Shiorájpur, there is a temple of Mahádeo, at which there is a gathering at the Shiorátri.

(5.) At Makhanpur there is a Dargáh, within which is the saint Shah Madár's tomb, and a mosque built by Aurangzeb in the latter half of the 17th century.

FARUKHÁBÁD.

FARUKHÁBÁD

(OR FATEHGARH).

A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. *Position and area.*—The district of Fatehgarh—bounded on the north by the districts of Budáon and Sháhjahánpur, on the east by the Oudh district of Hardui, on the south by Cawnpur and Etawah, and on the west by Mainpuri and Etah—lies between $26^{\circ} 45' 45''$ and $27^{\circ} 42' 45''$ north latitude, and $79^{\circ} 10' 45''$ and $80^{\circ} 6' 0''$ east longitude, and contains an area of 1,744 square miles and a population of 918,850, or 527 to the square mile.

2. *Subdivisions.*—The district is divided into six tahsilis or sub-collectories and 16 parganahs, as follows, proceeding from south-east to north-west :—

Tahsili.	Parganah.				Revenue, 1876.
					£
1. Kanauj	1. Kanauj	...	20,272
2. Tirwa	1. Tirwa Thattia	...	15,673
			2. Saurikh	...	5,238
			3. Sakatpur	...	4,185
			4. Sakrawa	...	273
3. Chibramau	1. Talgram	...	10,422
			2. Chibramau	...	9,656
4. Farokhabad	1. Bhojpur	...	8,266
			2. Muhammadabad	...	3,689
			3. Pahara	...	3,295
			4. Shamshabad East	...	6,618
5. Aligarh	1. Pramnagar	...	1,481
			2. Khakatmau	...	2,452
			3. Imratpur	...	8,491
6. Kaimganj	1. Shamshabad West	...	18,658
			2. Kampil	...	8,246
			Total	...	123,677

3. *Physical geography and boundaries.*—The district of Fatehgarh, or Farokhabad as it is indifferently called, is situated in the middle doab, being the next district above Cawnpur and below Etah. In shape it roughly resembles an hour-glass, or a figure made by two irregular squares joined by a narrower

neck. Nearly the whole of the district is on the west or right bank of the Ganges, only 10·2 per cent. being on the left or Oudh side. The southern boundary begins at a point on the Ganges half-way between Bilhaur in Cawnpur and Kanauj, and running south-west for 14 miles ; it then follows the course of the Pándu Naddi for 24 miles right up to its source ; it then crosses the Arind river and goes on for 24 miles due west till it ends on the Ahmi Naddi in parganah Lakhnau of Etawah ; thence the western boundary runs north-east past Sakrai across the Ganges Canal and the Isan Naddi to Nabbiganj, where it cuts the Kalandri Naddi, and follows that for 18 miles north-west to Sikandarpur ; thence it runs due north for 35 miles, and crossing the Budh-Ganga ends at a point on the Ganges 10 miles due east of Pattiali (in Etah).

The northern boundary follows the course of the Ganges for 24 miles as far as Kamraul in parganah Imratpur : it then crosses both the Ganges and the Rámganga, and ends at a point 4 miles east of the latter ; thence the eastern boundary runs south for 30 miles, cutting the Rámganga at Sahi, and reaching the Ganges at Sangirampur, 12 miles south of Farokhabad ; thence it follows the Ganges till it meets the southern boundary 8 miles south of Kanauj. The greatest length of the district is 76 miles from north to south, while its breadth varies from 40 to 17 miles.

The Doáb portion, or that west of the Ganges, consists of two completely separate tracts,—the high land portion beyond the cliff which marks the old bed of the Ganges, and the low land between that and the present river ; this latter resembles very much the trans-Gangetic portion of the district, which is also tarai or low land. In the cis-Ganges country the low land extends from Fatehgarh to the north-west boundary of the district, and is there about 6 miles broad ; the other tract of low land is east of Kanauj, in the south-east of the district, and between the Kali Naddi and the Ganges ; these two cover 181 square miles. All the remainder of the cis-Ganges part of the district consists of high land above the cliff, and this extends over 1,366 square miles, or 80 per cent. of the total area of the district, leaving 10 per cent. for the tarai of the cis-Ganges part, and 10 per cent. for that of the trans-Ganges parganahs.

This high land is divided into a series of doábs very similar in character. The first is the tract between the Ganges and the Bagar river, comprising the northern portion of the Kaimganj tahsil and the Pahára parganah of the Fatehgarh tahsil. The second is the portion of the district between the Bagar and the Kali Naddi, comprising the remaining parts of the Kaimganj and Fatehgarh tahsils and the Dundwára tract of the Kanauj tahsil between the Kali Naddi and the Ganges. The third is the doáb between the Kali Naddi

and the river Isan, and comprises the remainder of the Kanauj and the whole of the Chibramau tahsils. The fourth is between the Isan and the river Arind, and includes the whole of the Tirwa tahsil : only part of this doáb is in this district, the rest being in Cawnpur. The streams which form these doábs all run from north-west to south-east, like the Ganges, and all fall into that river, bending more to the south as they do so. The general physical features of these doábs are the same in all.

First we have at each limit, north and south, the tarai of the river-beds, the strip of land lying between the sandy slopes leading down to the river-beds and the rivers themselves; and year by year more or less flooded by the rivers in the rains. Passing inwards are two bhúr or sandy tracks rising from the basins of the rivers, the outer edge cut up by ravines which carry off the drainage of the country. These gradually become more level as one passes onwards. At the same time the soil also gradually changes, becoming firmer and less sandy by degrees, until after a while a loamy soil, called dumat, appears ; no distinct boundary line between the two being generally perceptible. This dumat tract forms the central watershed of the doáb, and along the central line of it lie úsar or saline plains, and the lakes that accompany them, when the cultivation, instead of being continuous, lies in patches of various sizes like islands in the úsar. These central dumat strips may be said, roughly speaking, to be the irrigated portion of the district. In them wells are made with little difficulty and expense ; they require only a little artificial assistance, such as is afforded by wattle coils or wooden or masonry frames, and last for a considerable time. In the sandy tracks wells either cannot be sunk at all or last but a year or two, unless built up with masonry from the spring level.¹

The trans-Gangetic tract is entirely tarái or low land. No part of it is much above the level of the river-floods. Much of it is covered with water for two or three days when the rains are heavy and the rivers high, and this water often leaves a deposit of sand behind. Some of the land is subject to constant erosion by the rivers, and the assessment of many villages is constantly varying with the varying area, as the rivers devour or cast up the culturable land.

The Ganges flows along the south-west border, and the Rámganga, entering at the north, flows through about half the tract, and then wanders off to continue its ravages in Hardui. Five channels—known as the Nasa, the Rapia, the Nadia, the Charneya, and the Katwya—connect these rivers and carry off their superfluous waters ; the two former flow out of the Rámganga, the three latter from the Ganges, but they are all connected with each other, so

¹ Evans, Settlement Report.

that when the Rámganga is in flood, and the Ganges not, the Nasa fills and carries its waters into the Ganges ; when the opposite is the case, the Charneya fills and carries the Ganges water into the Rámganga.

4. *Rivers* (1.)—The chief river of the district is of course the Ganges. Its course may be divided into three parts : in the first it forms the northern boundary of the district, dividing parganahs Kampil and Shamshábád East from the Budáon and Sháhjahánpur districts ; in the second it turns due south into the district, separating the Aligarh tahsil from the rest of the district ; and in the third it forms the eastern boundary of the district, dividing parganah Kanauj from the Hardui district of Oudh. The first portion is 24 miles long, and its course here is nearly from west to east ; it receives no considerable affluents in this part. The second part is 28 miles long, and the Ganges here runs north and south ; it receives the Budh-Ganga from the west near Fatehgarh. The third part is 35 miles long, and its course is north-west and south-east ; it here receives the Rámganga on the east and the Kali Naddi on the west. The Ganges is navigable for large boats throughout the whole distance of 87 miles, and is not bridged anywhere in this district by any permanent structure, though there is at Fatehgarh in the cold and hot seasons a bridge of boats which is replaced in the rains by a ferry.

(2.) The Budh-Ganga or Bagar river. This enters the district at the extreme north-west corner, and traversing the west portion of parganah Kampil, past the town of Kampil, it forms the boundary between that parganah and the two Shamshábáds (east and west), till it almost touches the Ganges at a point six miles east of Shamshábád ; here it turns south and runs parallel to the Ganges at a distance of about a mile from it for 10 miles, till it falls into the latter opposite the town of Farokhábád ; the first part of its course, while it is flowing east and west, is about 35 miles ; so it has altogether a course of 45 miles in this district.

(3.) The Kali Naddi or Black River enters the district at Sikandarpur, 24 miles west of Fatehgarh, and running south-east forms for the first 24 miles of its course the boundary between this district and Mainpuri, dividing parganah Shamshábád West from parganahs Bewar and Bhongáon of Mainpuri. At the town of Nabbiganj, where it reaches the Chabramau parganah, it turns due east and forms the boundary between parganahs Muhammadábád and Bhojpur on the north, and parganahs Chabramau and Talgram on the south for 30 miles, till it arrives within a mile of the Ganges : here one branch of it runs due north into the Ganges at the town of Sangírámpur; and the other turns south-east again, and running parallel with the Ganges at a distance of from 1 to 5 miles forms for 16 miles the boundary between parganah Talgram and parganah Kanauj, and then crosses the latter parganah past the town of Kanauj, falling into the

Ganges 4 miles south-east of it, 14 miles from where it entered the parganah. This river has therefore a total course of 84 miles in the district.

(4.) The Isan Naddi. This stream flows parallel to the Kali Naddi at an average distance of 10 miles to the south of it. It enters the district at Uncha, 8 miles north-west of Saurikh, and flows due east for 18 miles till it arrives within about 3 miles of the town of Talgram ; here it divides into two branches, which run about 3 miles apart and reunite at a distance of 8 miles, 5 miles east of Talgram. It then flows on through parganahs Tirwa Thattia and Kanauj for 16 miles, till it leaves the district 2 miles east of Thattia : it traverses parganah Bilhaur of Cawnpur, and passing the town of that name it falls into the Ganges 6 miles south-east of it. It has a total course of 42 miles in this district.

(5.) The Arind or Rind Naddi only traverses a corner of this district, entering it 5 miles north-west of Sakrei, and flowing past that town and Airwa through parganahs Sakrei and Sakatpur for 20 miles, till it leaves the district again 5 miles south-east of Airwa. It flows through the Cawnpur district, and traversing the west part of Fatehpur falls into the Jumna near Jafarganj.

5. *Lakes.*—There are no lakes of any size or importance in the district. In the trans-Ganges parganahs both the Ganges and Rámganga overflow in the rains and form large swamps, which, however, are not permanent. In the cis-Ganges parganahs there are only three permanent pieces of water.

The first is in parganah Chibramau, 4 miles west of Chibramau and 2 miles south of the Grand Trunk Road ; it is in a horse-shoe shape, about 2 miles in length and quite narrow.

The second and third are both in parganah Talgram, close together, about 4 miles north-east of Talgram and 4 miles south of the Grand Trunk Road. The northerly one is horse-shoe shaped, and about a mile long ; the southerly is square, and about 2 miles each way.

6. *Forests and waste lands.*—The district is uniformly, though not thickly, wooded : about 3·3 per cent. of the whole area is occupied by groves. The land lying along the high bank of the Ganges, which is very poor and ill-adapted to agriculture, is comparatively more thickly wooded than the rest of the district; while the low lands and the trans-Gangetic parganahs are the most scantily provided with trees.

There are no regular forests in the district. The largest barren tracts are the úsar plains, which lie along the central line of the three southern divisions of the uplands. The waste lands capable of cultivation form 11·6 per cent. of the

total area; in the last settlement it was 11·9. The barren area (úsar, &c.) incapable of cultivation is now 22·4 per cent., and was then 28 per cent.

7. *Geology.*—The whole district is an alluvial plain like all other Doáb districts, and the alluvial deposits are so thick that nothing is known of the strata underneath. A section of the upper layers of the alluvial beds gives approximately 35 feet loam, 30 feet blue silt, 20 feet strong clay, and below this a water-bed of reddish sand. Water is, however, often found nearer the surface than this.

8. *Climate.*—The average total rainfall was 29·4 inches for the 11 years from 1860 to 1871; during this period the maximum was 47·2 inches in 1867, and the minimum was 12·1 inches in 1868.

The annual mean temperature was 77° in 1870 and 84° in 1871; the lowest monthly mean was 58° in January, and the highest 93° in June.

The district has always had the reputation of being one of the healthiest in the Doáb: the general level of the land is high and the climate dry, and the district has hitherto been very free from epidemics, but fevers are prevalent in August and September. The cold weather commences rather later than in the more western districts, and the rains rarely clear off entirely till the middle of October. The hot winds begin to blow in April, and the hot season lasts till the end of June, when the rains begin. The trans-Gangetic parganahs are much lower and damper, and are frequently flooded.

9. *Minerals and Trees.*—There are no mines or quarries in the district, and no mineral products except saltpetre made from the reh or saline deposit, which often occurs on the open plains in the higher part of the district. The trees are the usual ones found in the Doáb, such as the mango, mahuwa, imli, bair, kachnar, amaltás, shisham, bargad, sirsa, babúl, pipal, &c. The mango, mahuwa, and bair are valued for their fruit, and the two former and the shisham for their timber. The bel, the aunla, the amaltás, and the sainjna all produce drugs used in medicine. No sál (sankhon) grows in the district, and there is no great trade in timber, nor are trees, except the shisham, grown purposely to produce it.

10. *Animals and Birds.*—All the domestic animals usually found in a Doáb district are met with here. There is no special breed of cattle, but cattle are often imported both from Oudh and from the Western Doáb. The tiger is not found in this district, but nearly all the other wild animals common in Upper India occur here, the boar, antelope, nilgæe, ravine-deer (*chikára*), fox, hare, porcupine, jackal, wild cat, and mungús being the commonest. A complete list of animals and birds is given in the article on "Agra." Water-fowl are

very abundant in the trans-Ganges parganahs, and peafowl, partridges, kulang, quail, &c., all over the district.

The chief fish are the rohu, bhur, sing, mungrí, and sanwariya, the former being a river fish, and the others pond fish.

11. *Population.*—In the census of 1872 there were 1,744 square miles in the Farokhabad district, with 3,934 mauzas, 192,080 houses, and a population of 918,850. There were 527 persons and 2·3 villages to the square mile, 234 persons per village, and 4·7 persons per house. There were 11,897 masonry houses and 180,183 mud ones. Of the sexes there were 499,722 males and 419,026 females.

The numbers of each religion and sex were as follows :—

Hindús	... { Males	448,267
	Females	368,466
				Total	...	<u>816,733</u>
Musalmáns,	{ Males	51,215
	Females	50,323
				Total	...	<u>101,538</u>
Christians,	{ Males	240
	Females	237
				Total	...	<u>477</u>

The percentages of each sex and religion on the total population were as follows :—

Hindús	88·9		Males	54·3
Musalmáns	11·1		Females	45·7

There were 2·9 persons per cent. above 60 years of age, and 17,857 males able to read and write. The total agricultural population was 511,478. The area of assessed land was 1,658 square miles, of which 372 were uncultivable, 264 cultivable, and 1,021 cultivated, and there were besides 22 square miles of uncultivable unassessed land. The amount of land revenue was £122,248, the rates and cesses on land £19,822, and the incidence of the land revenue per culturable acre was Re. 1-7-9. The percentage of agricultural on total population was 55·6. The numbers of the chief Hindú castes and Musalmán tribes were as follows :—

Hindús	... { Brahmans	85,987
	Rajputs	63,769
	Baníahs	15,717
	Ahirs	86,372
	Chamárs	94,274
	Kaiaths	15,378
	Kurmis	30,884

Musalmáns,	Shekhs	49,931
	Saiads	6,097
	Moghals	920
	Patháns	35,276

The numbers of males above fifteen in each of the six great classes of occupations were—

Professional	4,043
Domestic	30,246
Commercial	16,948
Agricultural	182,955
Industrial	43,977
Indefinite	44,290
				Total	...	322,459

There were altogether 3,934 inhabited villages and towns, of which 2,685 contained less than 200 inhabitants ; 936 less than 500 ; 239 less than 1,000 ; 54 less than 2,000 ; 11 less than 3,000 ; 4 less than 5,000 ; 2 less than 10,000 ; 2 less than 20,000 ; and 1 above 20,000.

The following figures give the comparative results of the three censuses of 1853, 1865, and 1872.

Area.—This was in 1853, 2,122 square miles ; in 1865, 1,694 ; and in 1872, 1,744 : it therefore decreased by 428 square miles, or 25·2 per cent., in the first twelve years, and increased by 50 square miles, or 2·9 per cent., in the latter seven years ; the total decrease in the whole nineteen years being 378 square miles, or 21·1 per cent.

Population.—The total population in 1853 was 924,594 ; in 1865, 917,496 ; and in 1872, 918,850 : it therefore decreased by 7,098, or ·76 per cent., from 1853 to 1865 ; increased by 1,354, or ·14 per cent., from 1865 to 1872, and decreased by 5,744, or ·63 per cent., in the whole nineteen years from 1853 to 1872.

We therefore find that in the former period it decreased at the rate of ·63 per cent. per annum, while in the latter period it increased at the rate of ·2, so that over the whole nineteen years the rate of decrease was ·33 per cent. per annum.

This district, in reverse of what happened in many others, did not regain in the second period the population which it had lost in the first.

Sex.—There were of males in 1853, 508,020 ; in 1865, 502,945 ; and in 1872, 499,722. They therefore decreased in the first period by 5,075, or 1·09 per cent., in the second by 3,223, or ·6 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 8,298, or 1·6 per cent.

There were of females in 1853, 416,574 ; in 1865, 414,551 ; and in 1872, 419,026. They therefore decreased in the first period by 2,023, or '4 per cent., and in the second increased by 4,475, or 1·07 per cent., while in the whole nineteen years they increased by 2,452, or '5 per cent.

The proportion of males to females was—

1·22 to 1 in 1853

1·21 „ 1 „ 1865

1·19 „ 1 „ 1872

The proportion of the sexes remained the same throughout the first period, and that of the males slightly decreased in the second.

The males decreased by 1·09 and '6 per cent., or by 1·6 on the whole. The females decreased in the first period by '4, and increased in the second by 1·07 per cent., or by '5 per cent. on the whole. So that in the first period the males decreased twice as fast as the females, while in the second period the females increased twice as fast as the males decreased, and on the whole period the males decreased three times as fast as the females increased.

The annual rates of increase and decrease were—

	<i>Decrease per cent.</i>		<i>Increase per cent.</i>		
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
	—	—	—	—	
In first period	...	'09	'033
In second period	...	'08	'15
In whole period	...	'08	'02

12. *Religion.*—There were of Hindús in 1853, 812,496 ; in 1865, 813,044 ; and in 1872, 816,733 : they therefore increased in the first period by 548, or '06 per cent., and in the second period by 3,689, or '4 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 4,237, or '5 per cent.

There were of Musalmáns in 1853, 112,098 ; in 1865, 102,899 ; and in 1872, 101,538 : they therefore decreased in the first period by 9,199, or 8·9 per cent., and in the second period by 1,361, or 1·3 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 10,560, or 10·4 per cent.

The proportion of Hindús to Musalmáns was—

7·24 to 1 in 1853

7·90 „ 1 „ 1865

8·04 „ 1 „ 1872

The proportion of Hindús therefore increased steadily, but slightly, throughout the whole period.

The Hindús increased by .06 and .4 per cent., or .5 on the whole. The Musalmáns decreased by 8.9 and 1.3, or 10.4 per cent. on the whole. So that in the first period the Hindús increased very slightly, while the Musalmáns diminished 9 per cent., and in the second period the Hindús increased nearly a half per cent., while the Musalmáns decreased rather more than 1 per cent.; so that on the whole the Hindús increased a half per cent., while the Musalmáns diminished 10 per cent. This is the most considerable difference between the results for the two different religions which has as yet appeared come to in any district.

13. Land Revenue.—The land revenue was in 1853 Rs. 13,38,011, in 1865 Rs. 11,22,248, and in 1872 Rs. 12,22,430: it therefore decreased during the first period by Rs. 2,10,763, or 18.7 per cent., and increased during the second by Rs. 1,00,182, or 8.9 per cent., while the total decrease on the whole nineteen years was Rs. 1,10,581, or 9.0 per cent.; the increase was therefore 1.5 per cent. per annum from 1853 to 1865, 1.2 per cent. per annum from 1865 to 1872, and .47 per cent. per annum on the whole period from 1853 to 1872.

Number of mauzas.—This was 2,017 in 1853, 1,645 in 1865, and 3,934 in 1872. The mauzas therefore decreased by 372, or 23.0 per cent., from 1853 to 1865, and increased by 2,289, or 139.1 per cent., from 1865 to 1872, and the total increase was 1,917, or 94.9 per cent., in the whole nineteen years, being 49.9 per cent. per annum.

Persons per square mile.—In 1853 there were 501 persons per square mile; in 1865, 541; and in 1872, 527: the density of population therefore increased by 40 in the first period of twelve years, or by 7.9 per cent., or .6 per cent. per annum; it decreased by 14 during the second period of seven years, or by 2.6 per cent., or .3 per cent. per annum; and increased by 26, or 5.2 per cent., or .2 per cent. per annum in the whole period of nineteen years.

This district therefore progressed in density much below the average of the Meerut and Rohilkhand divisions, but still much above almost stationary districts like Dehra, Muzaffarnagar, and Mathura.

14. Town and village population.—The following table shows the comparative density of the population in the different parganahs in reference to both

the area actually cultivated, and the area which is culturable but not cultivated :—

Parganah.	Population per square mile.	
	Cultivated.	Culturable.
Kanauj ...	807	714
Talgram ...	732	603
Chibramau ...	776	663
Bhojpur ...	809	670
Muhammadabad ...	841	713
Shamshabad East ...	720	607
Pahára (including city)	5,916	3,876
Shamshabad West ...	805	684
Kampil ...	815	575
Tirwa ...	799	615
Saurikh ...	628	509
Sakatpur ...	859	670
Sakrawa ...	878	695
Imratpur ...	785	611
Kákatumau ...	615	695
Paramnagar ...	874	736

Of the whole population 55 per cent. are returned as landowners or connected with land, but 60 per cent. of the Hindús are agriculturists, while only 27 per cent. of the Musalmáns are so. No change is as yet taking place in the occupations of the people of the district, nor is there any visible tendency to abandon rural life for trade and other urban occupations.

Out of 3,934 inhabited places, 2,685, or two-thirds, contained less than 200 inhabitants, and 3,621, or twelve-thirteenths, less than 500 : so that most of the population is scattered about in small villages.

There are five towns with more than 5,000 inhabitants, *viz.*, Farokhabad, Chabramau, Kaimganj, Kanauj, and Shamshabad, and these have a total population of 120,774, leaving the remaining 798,076 as residents of small towns and villages.

15. *Value of house and furniture.*—The cost of building a house of the best class may be considered to be from £200 upwards, of the 2nd class from £15 to £150, and of the third class from £1 to £10.

A trader's house of the better class contains generally about £50 worth of furniture and utensils of all kinds. Bedsteads, mattresses, quilts, carpets, and boxes would represent about £30 worth of this, and cooking vessels the remainder.

A well-to-do cultivator owns a few strong boxes and bedsteads and quilts worth about £10, besides cooking vessels worth £5 or £6.

An artizan in middling circumstances possesses one or two bedsteads and quilts and some drinking vessels, worth altogether about £3.

A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars, one or two quilts, and perhaps a bedstead, worth in all 10 shillings to a pound.

The house always consists of several rooms built round a yard or enclosure, into which they all open: several families united by relationship, and generally by common occupation, live in these enclosures, which were originally designed to afford their inhabitants a refuge against marauders. There are few or no openings in the outer walls, so that a village appears as if it were surrounded by a wall, and designed to resist a hostile attack. In villages the houses are almost always one-storied, but in towns, sites being more valuable, houses are often two or three storied. The roofs are either a flat roof of earth supported on beams, or a grass thatch where grass is plentiful. Tiled roofs are not used in this district.

16. *Trades-unions.*—As in other districts, there are no organized trades-unions in the English sense of the word, but the powerful caste pancháyats answer very much the same purpose, though they have a much wider field of action than an English trades-union has. Cultivators sometimes band together to resist enhancement of their rents, and pay *pro rata* contributions to a general fund. Goldsmiths, grain dealers, cloth merchants, and other traders have guilds which regulate their trade customs.

The pancháyats decide all questions and disputes of a domestic nature or affecting social arrangements, and disputes regarding petty debts or the tenancy of land. They have authority to inflict fines and to decide whether a man shall be put out of caste or not, and on the terms of his re-admission to it.

17. *Village communities.*—The villages in this district, as in nearly all in the North-West, may be classified into three kinds, according to the modes in which the land is held and the Government revenue paid:—

Zamindári.—Where the whole of the land belongs to several owners in joint occupation, one (or more) of the owners is usually selected by the rest to manage the estate and to collect the Government revenue and pay it in to Government; in these villages there are no pattis or separate shares of land marked off from the rest, but each proprietor owns a defined proportion of the total produce of the estate.

Imperfect pattidári.—Where the village is partly held by several owners in joint occupation, and partly by several owners in severalty or separate occupation. Here the tenure is partly of the first class and partly of the third class, and each portion is managed as if it were a separate estate belonging to that class.

Pattidari.—Where the land has been completely divided among the sharers, and is held by several owners in severalty, but under one tenure as regards the Government. Here the land and homesteads are entirely divided off to each owner, but the whole estate remains liable for the Government revenue or any part of it.

There is also a fourth kind of mahál or estate called bhaiachára, where, though it belongs to the second or third class, the rights and interest of each co-sharer are not determined by his ancestral share, but by custom or possession. In all these classes of estates the settlement of the revenue to be paid to Government is a joint settlement, i.e., all the co-sharers are responsible for the fulfilment of the contract, and all the co-sharers, jointly and severally, and the entire mahál are responsible for the whole revenue.

The classes of zamindars who were in possession at the cession in 1801 have maintained their original hold on the land to a great extent. The Thákurs were the first settlers over the greater part of the district. At the cession they held 41 per cent. of the whole district, or nearly twice as much as either the Brahmáns or Musalmáns, who next after them were the most extensive proprietors. At the fifth settlement in 1837 the Thákurs still held 38 per cent., the Brahmáns 19 per cent., and the Musalmáns 22 per cent., so that these three classes had only lost one per cent. of the whole area in those 37 years.

The following table shows the percentage of the district held by each class at three periods—the cession, the fifth settlement, and the present time :—

	Percentage of district held in		
	1803.	1840.	1873.
Thákurs	41	38	36
Brahmans	21	19	20
Kayaths	9	9	8
Musalmáns	18	22	21
Money-lending castes	...	3	5
Agricultural castes	8	7	7
Miscellaneous castes	3	2	3
Total	100	100	100

The cultivated area is distributed between five large classes of occupants, the landowners cultivating lands in their own villages, the occupancy tenants subdivided into tenants living in the village of which they cultivate the lands, and tenants living in another village, and tenants-at-will subdivided like the last. The landowners keep in their own hands 16 per cent. of the cultivated area, but the proportion differs considerably in the various parganahs. Where

the villages are chiefly held by large proprietary bodies of Thákurs the area cultivated by themselves is large ; the trans-Gangetic parganahs are so held, while Pahára is occupied by Kurmi landowners, who, if less numerous, occupy themselves more with cultivation. In Tirwa nearly the whole of the land belongs to the Rájá of Tirwa himself.

18. *Condition of the people.*—Among the Hindús of the district the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the 1st class, or having incomes over £100 a year, £96 to £180 ; (2) for those in the 2nd class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 a year, about £24 to £60 ; and (3) for those in the 3rd class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns it would be rather more, as their habits are somewhat more expensive.

As regards the agricultural classes, where the cultivators are occupancy tenants they are fairly well off, but where they are tenants-at-will their rents are of course higher, and they have a smaller margin of profit ; 64 per cent. of the whole cultivated area is held by occupancy tenants : of this 53 per cent. is held by resident and 11 by non-resident tenants. Where the landowners do not themselves cultivate, the occupancy tenants get the best land, which the landowners would have otherwise kept for themselves. The area held by tenants-at-will amounts to 20 per cent. of the whole area. The average rent-rates paid by tenants are :—

	Residents.			Non-residents.		
	s.	d.		s.	d.	
Occupancy tenants	7	11	6
Tenants-at-will	8	0	7

19. *Character of the soil.*—The Fatehgarh district contains 1,744 square miles ; of this all but 86 is assessed. Of the 1,658 miles of assessed land 372 is uncultivable, 264 is cultivable, and 1,021 is cultivated. The soil consists of the three kinds ordinarily found in the Doáb and neighbouring districts, viz., (1) dumat, or clay and sand ; (2) bangar, or bhur or bulwa, or sandy ; and (3) mattiar, rich clay.

The whole of the district is liable to re-assessment for Government revenue, there being no permanently settled estates, except where alienations of the revenue have been made for special purposes, generally as rewards for good service.

The culturable soil is almost all either loam (dumat) or bhur (sandy), but there is a limited area of the clayey soil (mattiar) found in depressions where water has lodged and has converted the loam into clay. Lastly there is the soil of the Tarái or low land, which is of two different kinds : one consists of

those lands which, lying round the borders of lakes or along a drainage course, are inundated in the rains, and are only freed from the flood in time to bear a spring crop ; the other kind includes the low-lying lands along the banks of rivers, which are flooded by them in the rains. These latter are similar to the Ganges low lands previously mentioned.

20. *Course of tillage.*—There are two harvests, the kharif or autumn one, and the rabbi or spring one. The kharif crops are sown in June, directly the first rain falls, and are harvested in October and November, and some of the rice in September, or even as early as the end of August, but cotton is not ripe for picking till February. Besides cotton and rice they include bajra, jowar, mot, &c. The rabbi crops are sown in October and November, and reaped in March and April; they consist of corn, barley, oats, vetch and peas, and dál or arhar. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both crops ; land is allowed to lie fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it. The only point in which the cultivation of the Farokhabad district differs from that of other Doáb districts is in the extent to which potato cultivation has been introduced, more especially in the neighbourhood of Farokhabad itself and the smaller towns of Kaimganj, Shamshábád, Chibramau, &c. In the villages near the city the system of a triple crop, of which the potato crop is one, is in full working. At the settlement of 1837 only 37 per cent. of the whole cultivated area was irrigated, while now the proportion has risen to 57 per cent.

The cultivation of sugarcane gives rise to an exceptional rotation of crops. When the autumn crop is reaped in November the land remains fallow, and is ploughed frequently for the next 16 months, till the sugarcane is planted in the following March; it is not cut till the January or February of the second year.

21. *Years of scarcity.*—The famines of 1770 and 1783 no doubt affected the Farokhabad district, as they did the whole of the North-Western Provinces, but the accounts we have of them are too scanty to allow of our estimating their exact severity in particular districts. In the subsequent famines Farokhabad was seriously affected only by the four worst, viz., of 1803-4, 1815-16, 1825-26, and 1837-38. The area which suffered from the minor famines and droughts which occurred in the intervals between the greater famines did not extend so far northwards as to embrace the whole area of Farokhabad, and the southern half of the district, which was at first almost entirely included in Cawnpore and Etawah, was always much more liable to famine than the northern half. In the famine of 1826 the parganahs of Bhojpur, Chibramau,

Talgram, Kanauj, Sakrawa, and Saurikh suffered very severely, while the northern part of the district was very little affected.

In the great famine of 1837-38 Farokhabad suffered severely, nearly one-fourth of the cultivated area being abandoned ; the failure of the rains was more general in the southern half of the district than in the northern, and parganahs Kanauj, Tirwa, and Sakatpur suffered most. In August, 1837, relief operations were commenced, and were at their maximum in March, 1838. The famine of 1860 was confined to the Upper Doáb and Rohilkhand, and hardly affected this district, except by raising the price of grain. The last scarcity of all in 1868-69 was felt in the district, and distress was for a time severe, though it passed away rapidly. Relief operations were continued from February to October, 1869.

22. Communications and Trade.—The chief connecting link between Farokhabad and the surrounding country is the Grand Trunk Road, which passes through the district, and has two branches leaving it, one to the south-east at Gursahaiganj, and the other at the west boundary, and uniting at Farokhabad itself. Communication is thus kept up with the east and north-west. The line of road passing into Rohilkhand crosses the Ganges at Fatehgarh. Here although a bridge of boats suffices for the requirements of the traffic for the greater part of the year, yet during the rains considerable interruption is caused by the absence of any permanent means of passage, ferry boats being of necessity substituted for a standing bridge. It is, however, owing to its distance from the railway that the prosperity of the district has been most injuriously affected. As long as the Grand Trunk Road and the river Ganges were the sole means of communication the situation of Farokhabad was eminently adapted for the trade in which its merchants were chiefly engaged ; but when the railway penetrated the country and left this city beyond its reach, the trade that had increased so greatly the prosperity of the place left it for towns more favourably situated on the line of rail. Internally communication is well maintained by a system of very numerous unmetalled roads. The main line is that which passes from the north to the south of the district, from the Ganges in the north, where the road passes into Budáon, to Tirwa in the south, where branches lead into Etawah and Cawnpore. Numerous feeders in every direction connect the various villages with each other and with this road.

The Grand Trunk Road from Calcutta and Cawnpore traverses the whole width of the district in its southern half : it enters the district within a mile of the Ganges, close to the junction of the southern and western boundaries, and passes by Kanauj, Gursahaiganj, Chibramau, and Nabbiganj into the Mainpuri district.

at Bewar : it runs through the parganahs of Kanauj, Talgram, and Chibramau from south-east to north-west, and is altogether 44 miles long in this district. It is of course metalled and bridged throughout. It has two branches, one leaving it at Gursahaiganj in parganah Talgram, and running 22 miles north-north-west to Fatehgarh ; the other leaving it at Chibramau and joining the first branch a few miles south of Fatehgarh at a distance of 14 miles from Chibramau. The other main artery of the district is the road which leaving the Grand Trunk Road near Bilhaur in Cawnpore, 6 miles before it enters this district, runs by Thattia Tirwa, Talgram, and Chibramau to Fatehgarh, and thence by Shamshábád, Kaimganj, and Kampil to the Budáon border of the district. It passes through parganahs Tirwa Thattia, Talgram, Chibramau, Bhojpur, Farokhabad, Shamshábád, and Kampil, and is 84 miles long. There are other roads—(1) from Talgram to Sakrai, 16 miles ; (2) from Tirwa to Bela in Etáwah, 12 miles long; (3) from Fatehgarh through Muhamdábád to Bewar in Mainpuri, 24 miles; (4) from Fatehgarh due west through parganahs Shamshábád East and West towards Etah, 20 miles ; (5) from Fatehgarh due north through Imratpur towards Sháhjahánpur, 16 miles. These are all more or less bridged and raised and are fit for traffic all the year round.

Trade.—As regards grain, the crops produced by the district are hardly sufficient for local wants, and no important exports can be made; on the contrary grain is largely imported from Oudh and Rohilkhand. The fact that the receipts at the ferries, gháts, and bridges have increased fivefold since 1844 shows how enormously the trade and traffic of the district have grown in the interval.

23. *Money-lending, wages, and prices.*—The rates of interest at present (1877) charged in the district are as follows:—

- (a.) In small transactions, when articles are pawned, from 9 to 10 per cent. in the city, and 10 to 15 in the country. It is usual to require articles to the value of one and a half times the amount lent.
- (b.) In small transactions, when personal security is given, from 18 to 37 per cent.
- (c.) In large transactions, when jewels, &c., are pledged, from 6 to 12 per cent.
- (d.) When bankers lend money to bankers on personal security, 6 to 9 per cent.
- (e.) When land is mortgaged, from 10 to 24 per cent., depending on the character of the borrower.

There are a few native banking establishments in the city of Farokhabad, but their operations do not extend to the villages of the district, in which the village baniah and the landowner still retain for themselves the exclusive right of advancing money to the peasants, and thereby retaining them in their power.

The rates of wages are as follows :—

- (a.) Coolies and unskilled labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ pence a day.
- (b.) Agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 pence a day.
- (c.) Bricklayers and carpenters, 6 pence to 2 shillings a day.

Female labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men.

Boys of from 12 to 16 get two-thirds of the wages of full-grown men ; boys younger than that and girls from one-half to one-third.

The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were as follows :—

	<i>Number of seers (2lbs.) for a rupee (2s.)</i>				<i>Average.</i>
	<i>1st April.</i>	<i>1st August.</i>	<i>1st December.</i>		
Wheat	...	28	27	24	26
Rice	...	7	7	7	7
Jowar	...	38	...	37	37
Bajra	...	38	...	35	36
Dal	...	24	27	24	25

With regard to the fluctuation of prices, there are three well marked periods since 1803. The first was previous to the famine of 1817, the second between that and 1854, and the third from 1854 onwards. Between 1803 and 1871 the number of times which the price of wheat rose above 24 seers a rupee is equal to the number of times when it fell below 24 seers, so that 24 seers may be taken as the medium price of wheat. From 1803 to 1817 the price of wheat never fell below 24 seers ; from 1817 to 1854 it was 19 times above and 15 times below 24 seers, and from 1854 to 1871 it was 3 times above and 13 times below 24 seers. There is therefore a considerable rise in prices since 1803, and they now seem to incline to maintain a higher and more unvarying level.

The average price of the three staple grains was :—

	<i>Wheat.</i>	<i>Barley.</i>	<i>Jowar.</i>
1803-10	...	41	58
1811-20	...	37	41
1821-30	...	32	45
1831-40	...	38	44
1841-50	...	35	47
1851-60	...	33	41
1861-70	...	22	24

24. *History*—The district of Farokhabad as at present formed varies considerably from the district of Farokhabad as it existed when first ceded to the British Government in 1802. At that time it was composed of the sixteen and a half maháls which formed the jagir of the Nawáb of Farokhabad, and included the following parganahs :—

1. Azamnagar.	9. Karauli.
2. Barna.	10. Bewar.
3. Pattali.	11. Soj.
4. Sahawar.	12. Kampil.
5. Karsana.	13. Shamshábád (including Pipar-
6. Nidhpur tappa Adhar.	gaon and Muhammadabad).
7. Sirhpura,	14. Chibramau.
7½. Marahra nisf.	15. Sikandarpur Arho.
8. Souhar.	16. Bhojpur.

10. Bewar. } Now in Mainpuri.
11. Soj. }

13. Shamshábád (including Pipar- } Now in Etah.
gaon and Muhammadabad).

Of the $16\frac{1}{2}$ original parganahs but five remain attached to this district. These five now form six parganahs, the old parganah of Shamshábád now being divided into three, Shamshábád West (in the Kaimganj tahsil), Shamshábád East (in the Sudder tahsil), and Muhammadabad ; while Sikandarpur Arho has been amalgamated with the old parganah of Chibramau, the two forming the present parganah Chibramau.

For the first two settlements the district remained unaltered. In 1809, at the third settlement, the half mahál Marahra, Karauli, and Soj were detached. In 1837 Souhar and Bewar were transferred to district Mainpuri. In 1843 Sahawar, Karsana, Sirhpura, Nidhpur (including tappa Aonla) were transferred to district Sahaswan. Finally, in 1856, Azamnagar and Barna were taken, to be incorporated with parganahs from other districts and form the new district of Etah. Meanwhile the district had been receiving additions from the southern districts. In 1817 parganahs Talgram and Saurikh were received from the Etawah district. In 1829 the trans-Gangetic parganahs of Imratpur, Khakatmau, and Paramnagar were brought in from district Shábjahánpur (together with parganah Bangaon, which was restored to Shábjahánpur in 1843). In 1837 the parganahs of Thattia and Kanauj were transferred to this district from Cawnpur, and parganahs Tirwa and Sakatpur from Etawah. The only parganah now remaining in the district not yet mentioned is that of Sakrawa. It was held revenue-free *in toto* by the Nawáb of Farokhabad, and therefore did not appear in the revenue-roll of any district. For administrative purposes it was attached to Etawah until 1837, when it was included in this district. The only alterations that have taken place within its limits arise from division or combination of the old parganahs.

The old district or territory of the Nawáb of Farokhabad lay to the north of the Kali Naddi, excepting only the parganah of Chibramau; all the rest of the country south of the Kali Naddi was under the Nawáb Nazims of Oudh. The district as at present formed is therefore composed of two portions, which were until the cession of 1801 under two different administrations, and it will be seen, when considering its past history, that the difference of the two Governments has left its mark on the position and welfare of the people subject to them.

Originally the country was held almost entirely by Thákur colonies. When the village traditions are examined one by one, there are but few which do not speak of their foundation as effected by some Thákur tribe after the extermination of the Bhyars, as the former inhabitants of the country are here universally called. There are, however, a small number of villages held by Kurmis or Ahirs, who claim to have been their original founders, but have not even a tradition of their early ancestors.

There were two epochs of Thákur colonization separated by a considerable interval of time, and affecting different portions of the district. The boundary line between the two was the Kali Naddi, which seems from the earliest times to have formed the barrier between hostile powers, and remained the dividing line between different administrations until the acquisition of the country by the British Government.

The earlier colonization took place in the country to the south of the Kali Naddi. The patron under whose favour the different settlements were established was the great Jaichand, Rájá of Kanauj. Each tribe has its own story, how their ancestor came at the bidding of Jaichand, and at his direction proceeded to exterminate the Bhyars, after which he founded one or more villages, and his descendants gradually added to their number.

North of the Kali Naddi tradition tells another tale. After the defeat and death of Jaichand at the hands of Musalmáns, his descendants for the most part fled to their native land. One branch, however, sought its fortunes elsewhere.

Taking advantage, as it would seem, of the overthrow of the Tuars by the Musalmáns, they passed across the Kali Naddi into territory which had till then been held by that clan of Thákurs. The leader of this band of adventurers was Parjan Pal, the descendant of Jaichand in the seventh generation. This would place a considerable interval of time between the two settlements. Parjan Pal settled near the Ganges, and is said to have built the fort of Khor, hard by the site of the present town of Shamshábád.

Of the various tribes who shared in the settlement in the south, the most important were those of the Gahlots in Tirwa, the Baises in Sakatpur and Saurikh, and the Baghelas in Kanauj. The Gahlots (Gobhil gotr) speak of Chitorgarh as the home of their ancestors. Govind Rao, the founder of their colony, is said to have come with Pirthi Raj, the Dehli prince, in his expedition against Jaichand of Kanauj, and to have received 180 villages in this district and the adjoining parganahs in Cawnpur as a reward for the valour he displayed. From him the Gahlots have preserved a pedigree down to the present representatives of the clan.

The Baises, who of course say they came from Daundi Khera, were headed by two brothers, Hansraj and Bachraj. They state that their ancestors at first served under the Bhyars, but finally turned against them, and under the patronage of Jaichand established themselves in parganahs Sakatpur and Saurikh, and crossing the Isan Naddi, in a few villages in Chibramau and Talgam. A large colony of Baises, said to have emigrated from here, are found in the Paramnagar parganah.

Of the northern settlements the most noteworthy was that of the Rahtors, who claim a descent from Parjan Pal, the founder of Khor, and through him from Rájá Jaichand. They are of the same stock as the Rahtors who settled in Usait in the district of Budáon. The Rájá of Rámpur in Etah is also of the same family. The Rahtors here trace their descent more immediately to one Udaichand, who settled in the village of Modah in the Muhammadabad parganah, and his descendants spread over the western portion of this parganah and a great part of the adjacent parganah now called Shamshábád East.

The Pomars (Bashist gotr) trace their colonization to Rao Sheopal Singh, who is said to have settled in the parganah of Amratpur by the favour of the Rájá of Khor. His sons quarrelled with and were expelled by Partit Rae, the Kayath minister of the Rájá; but one son, Basant Shah, returned and recovered his estate. His descendants occupied the greater portion of the parganah, and those now living trace their pedigree through fifteen generations to Sheopal Shah.

This is all that is known of the early history of the district up to the period of the Muhammadan rule. During the later years of that period the northern half of the district, together with other parganahs now lying in Etah and Mainpuri, constituted the jágir of the Nawáb of Farokhabad.¹

¹ Evans' Settlement Report.

South of the Kali Naddi, Chibramau and Sakrawa (which formed his personal estate) were the only parganahs under his administration. The remainder of the district was under the Nawáb of Lucknow, and administered by several of his Nazims from time to time.

Of all the more important settlements in the territory of the Farokhabad Nawáb none had lost their proprietary rights to any serious extent.

Turning to the south and the administration of Lucknow, we find the old settlers sacrificed to facilitate the collection of heavy revenues, and in their place two men erected into taluquadar, who rapidly absorbed the estates of the old Thákurs. Thus in Tirwa we see the Gahlots, Gahalwar, Khati, and Bamangaur Thákurs ousted by the Baghel, who by the favour of the Nazim had risen from a farmer of revenues to a taluquadar, with the title of Rájá. In Talgram a similar process was going on. Udaichand, the Tiwari of Biharipur, possessed himself of the name and office of Chaudhri, and profiting by his opportunities as farmer and protégé of the Nazim, succeeded in acquiring the greater portion of that parganah.

At the time of the cession the old Thákur settlements were prospering well in the trans-Gangetic parganahs and in what now forms the headquarters tahsil. The tahsils of Kaimganj and Kanauj and the parganah of Chibramau were occupied by numerous small and isolated communities or families, and a considerable proportion of Musalmán proprietors. The parganah of Talgram and the tahsil of Tirwa were in the hands of newly-created taluquadar, and the old zamindars reduced to the level of cultivating tenants.

In 1751, on the death of Ali Muhammad, the Rohilla chief, the emperor refused to acknowledge Hafiz Rahmat Khan as his successor, and sent the Nawáb of Farokhabad against him ; but Rahmat Khan defeated and slew the latter and annexed four of his parganahs in Budáon. The Vazír of Oudh, Safdar Jang, then plundered the property of the Nawáb of Farokhabad, and this led to the union of the Farokhabad Rohillas with their Bareilly clansmen. Both were united under Hafiz Rahmat Khan. They defeated Safdar Jang, re-took Farokhabad, and besieged Allahabad, while another body of them invaded Oudh. Safdar Jang then called in the aid of the Marhattas, and with them defeated the Rohillas at Bisauli near Aonla : the Rohillas finally made peace with him, and Farokhabad passed into his hands again. Shuja-ud-daula succeeded Safdar Jang in 1754, and tried to get both clans of Rohillas to assist him in his campaign against the English after his defeat at Buxar in 1764, but they refused, and he called in the Marhattas. He was again defeated by the English at Korah in Fatehpur in 1765, and then concluded peace

with them, ceding Benares, &c. In 1770 the Marhattas attacked the Rohillas, who asked the Vazir of Oudh's aid: he bought off the Marhattas, and then attacked the Rohillas with the aid of the English. All Rohilkhand and Farokhabad passed entirely into his hands in 1774, and remained under him till he ceded them to the English in 1801.

From the time the district passed into our hands seven settlements of the land revenue have been made at the following times and amounts:—

	Date.	Amount.
		£
1st	settlement,	1803-5
2nd	"	1806-8
3rd	"	1809-12
4th	"	1813-36
5th	"	1837-44
6th	"	1845-71
7th	"	1872

In the mutiny Farokhabad shared the fate of other districts and passed entirely out of our hands for a time. The news of the outbreak at Meerut reached this place on the 14th of May, and that of the mutiny at Aligarh on the 22nd. It was determined to escape to Cawnpur if possible.

The 10th Native Infantry broke out into partial mutiny on the 29th May, but were pacified. On the 2nd June some Oudh mutineers crossed the Ganges, and on the 3rd they entered the station and arranged with the 10th Native Infantry that the rising should take place next day. That night Mr. Probyn, the magistrate, and nearly all the Europeans left Fatehgarh in boats; next morning they were joined by the officers of the 10th, which had mutinied. On the 5th they separated into two parties, Mr. Probyn and about 40 others going up the Rám-ganga, the rest going down the Ganges. On the 8th June Mr. Probyn and two officers of the 10th returned to Fatehgarh, as the 10th had been again pacified; but as Colonel Smith proclaimed martial-law, Mr. Probyn left again on the 10th. On the 13th all of the 40 who had gone up the Rám-ganga, except Messrs. Probyn and Edwards, returned to Fatehgarh, and things remained quiet till the 18th, when the 10th again mutinied and placed the Nawáb of Farokhabad on the throne. The 41st Native Infantry from Sitapur marched in on the same day, and the Europeans began fortifying the fort. The 41st attacked them on the 25th, and they resisted till the 4th July, when the fort being mined they escaped in boats. The first boat under Colonel Smith reached Cawnpur, and all were murdered there by the Náná on the 10th July. The second boat was stopped 10 miles down the Ganges, and all those in it were captured or killed, except Messrs. Gavin

Jones and Churcher, who escaped. Those who were captured were taken back to Fatehgarh, and there murdered by the Nawáb on the 19th July.

Messrs. Probyn and Edwards and their families remained with Hardeo Baksh at Dharampur till he delivered them safely to the English force at Cawnpore on the 1st September. The Nawáb governed the district till the 23rd October, when he was defeated by the English at Kanauj. They passed on, however, and he and Bakht Khan of Bareilly retained power till Christmas.

On the 2nd January our troops crossed the Kali Naddi, and took Fatehgarh on the 3rd : the Nawáb and Firoz Shah fled to Bareilly. After this Brigadier Hope defeated the Budáon rebels at Shamshábad on the 18th January, and Brigadier Seaton defeated another body on the 7th of April. On the 28th May 3,000 Bundelkhand rebels crossed the district and besieged Kaimganj : they were driven off into Oudh, and order was not again disturbed.

25. *Administration.*—Farokhabad is the headquarters of a civil and sessions judge, who has no other district under him. It is in the Agra division, and is the most easterly of the districts in that division.

(a.) *Criminal and Revenue.*—The ordinary staff of the district consists of a magistrate and collector, two joint magistrates, an assistant magistrate, and two deputy magistrates and collectors ; besides these there is now (1877) a settlement officer. There are also six tahsildars or sub-collectors and sub-magistrates, and 11 special magistrates with local powers.

Both the deputy collectors and all the special and sub-magistrates are natives ; the rest are Europeans. The magistrate, joint magistrates, and one deputy magistrate have 1st class powers ; the assistant magistrate and the other deputy magistrate either 1st class or 2nd class, and the sub-magistrates and special magistrates either 2nd or 3rd class.

There are also an inspector of customs, a sub-deputy opium agent and three assistants, a district superintendent of police, a civil surgeon, and the superintendent of the central jail, who all have certain criminal or revenue powers.

(b.) *Civil.*—The civil judge has under him one sub-judge with powers locally co-extensive with his own, and three munsifs or primary civil courts at Kanauj, Kaimganj, and Chibraman.

In 1875 the total cost to the State of these civil courts was £6,890, and the amount realized by court fees and stamps was £6,251. The number of cases decided by each class of courts was—

Civil courts	4,823
Criminal courts	2,428
Revenue courts	4,715

The average value of property under litigation in the civil courts was £18.

(c.) *Police*.—In the year 1875 the total strength of the district regular police force was 943. This number consisted of 1 district superintendent, 122 officers under the rank of inspector, 25 mounted and 795 foot constables. The cost of maintaining this force was £10,279. The total strength of the police is one man to every 1.79 square miles, and one man to every 974 persons in the total population. The cost of maintenance is equal to £5.8 per square mile, or 2.6 pence per head of the population.

(d.) *Jails*.—There are at Fatehgarh three places of confinement for prisoners : (1) the central jail, (2) the district jail, (3) the magistrate's lock-up.

(1.) The central jail had in 1875 an average of 1,265 prisoners, of whom the whole were males. It was under the control of a superintendent (a surgeon), who had under him a jailor and 105 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 42-10-0.

The average outturn of labour was Rs. 3 per head.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 2,140.

The rate of mortality was 0.86 per cent. of average strength.

(2.) The district jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 371 prisoners, of whom 350 were male and 21 female.

It is under the charge of the civil surgeon, who has under him a jailor and 35 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 35-12-0.

The average outturn of labour was Rs. 5 per head.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 1,165.

The rate of mortality was 2.95 per cent. of average strength.

(3.) The lock-up contained in 1875 a daily average of about 40 under-trial prisoners.

(e.) *Postal and Telegraph*.—There are 15 imperial and 12 local post-offices in the district, and in 1876 there were 46 letters per head of the population and 24.13 letters per educated man.

There is a Government telegraph office at Fatehgarh, but as no railway passes through any part of the district there are no railway telegraph offices.

26. *Revenue and Finance*.—The district local funds amounted in 1876 to £27,848, and the expenditure to £18,893.

There is only one municipality, viz., Fatehgarh *cum* Farokhabad ; of this the receipts and expenditure were as follows in 1875 :—

Municipality.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Incidence of taxation per head.		
			Rs.	a.	p.
Fatehgarh <i>cum</i> Farokhabad.	£ 8,177	£ 7,663	0	14	11

The whole amount of revenue raised in the district, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, in 1876 was £197,229, or on a population of 955,497¹ an incidence per head of 4·1 shillings: out of this £43,755, or 22 per cent. of the total receipts was returned to the district in payment for its administration.

The last settlement of the land revenue was commenced in 1863 and finished in 1874. It resulted in an increase of the revenue from £112,545 to £124,673, or by £12,127; and its total cost was £10,845.

27. *Medical Statistics*—There are four dispensaries in the district—at Farokhabad, Fatehgarh, Kaimganj, and Miran-ka-Sarai. During the year 1875, 20,521 persons were treated in these dispensaries, of whom 789 were indoor and 19,732 out-door patients. The total receipts were £702, and the expenditure on establishment £400.

The total number of deaths in the year 1875 was 20,609, or 22·43 per 1,000 of the population; the mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 during the previous six years was 16·09.

The prevailing endemic diseases are intermittent and remittent fever, calculus, and hydrocele.

In 1875, 7,965 persons were vaccinated, and the operation was successful in 7,078 cases.

28. *Education*.—There were 320 schools in the district in 1875 with 7,507 scholars, which gives an average area of 5·45 square miles for each school, and a percentage of ·81 scholars on the total population. The district is in the Agra circle. There are a zila school in the city of Farokhabad and an Anglo-vernacular school at Fatehgarh; there are also three Anglo-vernacular schools in the district, at Kaimganj, Shamshabad, and Chibramau. The vernacular used in the lower schools is Hindi.

The total cost of all schools to Government was in 1876 £3,416, of which £1,217 was paid from provincial and £2,198 from local sources.

¹ Corrected to 1876.

29. *Fairs and Chief Towns.*—The chief fairs in the district are the following :—

Place.	Date.	Average number attending.	Object of fair.
1. Sirmau	March ...	15,000	Worship of Devi Sitala.
2. Mehndipur	October ...	15,000	Bathing in Ganges.
3. { Madhopur 3. Tokaghát	} ,	115,000	Bathing.
4. Barhpur	March ...	15,000	Worship of Devi.
5. Nankhanda	Novr., ...	10,000	Barter.
6. Singhirampur	May ...	80,000	Worship of Ramkishn.
7. Bhaopur	Sept., ...	16,000	Ram Lila of Farokhabad city.

All these are almost exclusively religious ceremonies, and have no trade of any importance, except the one at Singhirampur, to which traders come from Gwalior and the south generally.

The chief towns in the district which have a population of more than 5,000 are—

(1.) Farokhabad, in parganah Pahárah. Chief town of district on right or west bank of Ganges. Population 65,441, area 1,411 square acres, 83 miles from Cawnpore and 62 from Etawah.

(2.) Fatehgarh, in parganah Pahárah. Civil and military station on right or west bank of Ganges, three miles east of Farokhabad. Population 13,439. The seat of the Government gun-carriage factory and a municipality.

(3.) Chibramau, in parganah Chibramau, on Grand Trunk Road from Cawnpore to Shekhoabad. Population 5,444, area 100 square acres, 17 miles south-west from Fatehgarh.

(4.) Allahganj, in parganah Amritpur, on Grand Trunk Road to Bareilly, 12 miles from Farokhabad, on eastern bank of Ránganga. Population 6,246.

(5.) Kanauj, in parganah Kanauj, on the Grand Trunk Road, 32 miles south from Fatehgarh, on west bank of the Kali Naddi, 5 miles above its junction with the Ganges. Population 17,093, area 298 square acres.

(6.) Kaimganj (or Kayamganj), 22 miles north-east from Fatehgarh, to which there is a metalled road. It is noted for its mangoes and potatoes. Population 10,323, area 149 square acres.

(7.) Shamshabad, 18 miles north-west of Fatehgarh, on south bank of Buddhi Ganga, and six miles east of Kaimganj. Population 8,710, area 162 square acres.

30. *Archaeology.*—The place of greatest interest in the district is of course Kanauj, the ancient capital of the Hindu kingdom. It is situated on

the left bank of the Kali Naddi, 4 miles from the Ganges, which was once close to it. It is $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile east of the Grand Trunk Road, and is 33 miles south-east of Fatehgarh. The ruins extend over the lands of five villages, and occupy a semicircle fully four miles in diameter. The buildings appear to have been all of brick, and there therefore now remains nothing but the foundations : the old bricks are constantly used to build fresh edifices, and thus the traces of the old buildings grow fainter every day. The present town stands on the mounds and slopes of the ravines of the cliff on which it is built, and below this cliff the Ganges once flowed.

The oldest relic in Kanauj is the shrine of Rájá Ajaipal, supposed to be the Jaipal conquered by Mahmud of Ghazni and killed in 1021 A.D. by the Chandel Rájá of Kalinjar. Another old building is the Jama Masjid, which is known as Síta-ki-rasoi, or Síta's kitchen : the pillars prove its Hindu origin, and it is said to have been turned into a mosque by Ibráhim Shah of Jaunpur about 1400 A.D. To the north-west of the town are the tombs of Bálá Pir and his son Shekh Mehndi, dating from about 1650. There are also the tombs of Saiyad Muhammad Kanaujia, Alamgir's tutor (date 1684), and of Makhdum Jahániya of Bukhára (about 1470).

There are numerous other remains at Kanauj of less interest.

30-3-'77.

A. COTTERELL TUPP.

FATEHPUR.

FATEHPUR.

A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH-WEST PROVINCES.

1. *Position and area.*—The district of Fatehpur—bounded on the north by the Rae Bareli and Sultanpur districts of the province of Oudh, on the south by the districts of Hamírpur and Bánáda, on the east by the district of Allahabad, and on the west by the district of Cawnpore—lies between north latitude $25^{\circ} 26' 15''$ and $26^{\circ} 13' 0''$, and east longitude $80^{\circ} 19' 0''$ and $81^{\circ} 25' 0''$, and contains an area of 1,585 square miles, and a population of 663,877 persons, or 419 to the square mile.

2. *Sub-divisions.*—The district is divided into six tahsílis or sub-collectories and 13 parganahs, as follows, proceeding from east to west:—

Tahsíli.	Parganah.			Revenue, 1876.
				£
Khaga	Hatgaon	171,663 ¹
	Kutla	37,000 ¹
	Ekdalla	145,234
Khakreru	Dhata	33,550
	Fatehpur	172,760
	Haswa	113,890
Fatehpur	Gházipur	101,500
	Mutaur	64,080
	Aish-sah	40,610
Gházipur	Kutia Gunir	73,781
	Bindki	86,630
	Tappahjar	94,270
Korah	Korah	192,240
		Total	...	1,349,430

3. *Physical geography.*—This district is situated in the extreme south-east corner of the Doáb, or tract of country between the river Ganges and river Jumna, and is only separated from their point of junction by a portion of the Allahabad district. Its average length is 65 miles, and its average breadth 23 miles; in shape it is an irregular oblong, the longer sides of which run from north-west to south-east. The rivers Ganges and Jumna bound it throughout its entire length on the north and south respectively. Its east boundary

¹ Old revenue. These parganahs are not yet assessed in the new settlement.

is a line running irregularly from Kishnpur near the Alwara lake to Sultanpur on the Ganges, opposite to the town of Sunámau in the Rae Bareli district of Oudh, and it cuts the East Indian Railway at 45 miles west from Allahabad. Its west boundary is another line running irregularly at right angles to the Ganges and Jumna from the junction of the river Betwa with the Jumna to a point on the Ganges five miles north-west of the town of Shiorajpur; and it cuts the East Indian Railway in the 100th mile from Allahabad. The whole district consists of an alluvial plain formed by the deposits of the two great rivers which bound it on the north and south. All the central part of the district is almost perfectly level, and consists of highly cultivated alluvial land interspersed with tracts of "usar" (saltpetre deposit) and jungle.

A ridge of higher land, forming the watershed of the district, runs along it from east to west at an average distance of five miles from the Ganges; so that the district consists of two slightly inclined planes, the one, only five miles broad, sloping down rapidly to the Ganges, and the other, from 15 to 20 miles broad, falling gradually to the Jumna. The portions of these plains which are near the two rivers are seamed and cut up in every imaginable way with ravines and nallahs, particularly towards the Jumna or south side.

4. Rivers.—The watershed of the district being so near the Ganges, all streams of any size necessarily flow into the Jumna. Besides the Ganges and the Jumna, there are three large streams in the district which may be called rivers: these are all in the extreme west, and are (1) the Pándú, (2) the Rind, and (3) the Nún.

(1.) The Pándú flows from the Cawnpore district into this at Rúsí in the Bindki parganah, runs south-east three miles, and then turns sharply north for seven miles till it falls into the Ganges at Gallahta. During the last five miles of its course it forms the boundary between the Cawnpore and Fatehpur districts, and at the bridge by which the Grand Trunk Road crosses it about a mile from the Ganges, Havelock, on the 15th July, 1857, fought his last battle before entering Cawnpore, and drove the rebels thence into that city.

(2.) The Rind runs for about 30 miles through the district: it enters it from the Cawnpore district, three miles north of the town of Korah, and flowing a little to the east of that place, where it is crossed by a fine old Moghul bridge, it goes on for 26 miles in a south-easterly and southerly direction, till it falls into the Jumna at Dariabad in the Tappahjar parganah, having during part of its course formed the boundary between the Tappahjar and Korah parganahs.

The Rind in this district is a large stream, never dry in the hottest weather, and swollen in the rains into a considerable river, which is often impassable for

days from the volume and velocity of its current. It is not bridged below Korah, and presents a formidable obstacle to the inhabitants of Korah and Tappahjar in their intercourse with the rest of the district during four months of the year.

The scenery on the banks of the Rind is most picturesque and varied : it is fed by innumerable rivulets, each of which cuts its way through beds of kankar to the main stream, and thus deep and precipitous ravines are formed all over the country within a few miles of the river. The tract enclosed by the Rind, Nún, and Jumna is one mass of ravines, and contains but little cultivable ground. The ravines are generally well clothed with babúl jangal, and are the haunts of wild animals of all kinds ; but the jangal is gradually being cut down for firewood, and the animals are disappearing along with the coverts which gave them shelter.

(3.) The Nún enters this district from that of Cawnpore in the south-west part of the Korah parganah, six miles south of the town of Jahánábád, and flows past Amauli and Chandpur into the Jumna, its whole course in this district being only 12 miles. It is a large deep stream in the rains, and is bordered with very precipitous and extensive ravines stretching to a considerable distance on each side of the river.

There are three other streams of smaller size at the east end of the district :—(1) The Belinda Naddi, rising near Hussenganj in the Fatehpur parganah within three miles of the Ganges, and flowing south-east for 30 miles till it falls into the Jumna at Kishnipur in the Ekdala parganah. (2) The Sasur Khaderi, rising near Sonth in the west part of the Hatgaon parganah, and flowing for 16 miles in a south-east direction, till it passes into the Allahabad district near Tikri. (3) The Máhá or Bara Naddi, rising about three miles south of Khaga in the parganah of that name, flowing 20 miles in a south-east direction, and falling into the Jumna at Koth in the Ekdala parganah.

5. *Lakes*.—The jhils or shallow lakes which abound in this district are a very marked feature in it ; they are generally temporary, being filled in the rains, and drying up in January or February, but some few are permanent.

They are confined to the central portion of the district, which is not drained by any streams of considerable size, and which extends from Khajwa on the west to Khaga on the east.

The largest are the Zafarábad, Jhuniah, Sehli, Harnawán, Hussenganj, Belinda, Moráon, and Chítisapur jhils, so named after the villages which are nearest to them. On all these lakes wild fowl of all kinds abound from September to February, and they are succeeded as the water dries up by great

flocks of kulang (of both kinds), and, later still, in the hot weather by nilgæe and antelope, who find in the dried-up jhils a refuge when all their ordinary shelter during the cold weather has been destroyed by the cutting of the crops in March and April. The whole of the central portion of the district, forming a quadrangle from Bindki in the north-west to Bhalewán in the north-east, and from Bahuba in the south-west to Sátón in the south-east, is thickly studded with jhils, and their value to the agriculturist can hardly be over-estimated; the rabbi or spring and the rice harvests entirely depend on them: when the rainfall is scanty, and particularly if none falls after the middle of September, the jhils are all drained dry by the end of November: the cultivators work night and day in relays raising the water by means of the double basket (dugla) swung by four men, and the most serious feuds and riots between villages often occur owing to their eagerness to secure as much water as possible.

6. *Forests and waste lands.*—The district being bounded on the north and south by the rivers Ganges and Jumna, there is a tract of uncultivated land along the course of each river; but they differ widely in extent and character.

Along the Jumna the country for two or three miles inland is intersected by ravines in all directions; these are covered with kankar and rubble, the detritus of the myriad streams which pour from the higher land into the Jumna, and the soil is quite uncultivable, except where the ravines spread out into small valleys, the lower portions of which are often covered with rich alluvial soil. The ravines are often bare, but more generally covered with small bushes and scattered babúl trees of both species.

The country bordering on the Ganges is often cultivated down to the very edge of the river, and, except in a few places, is not cut up by ravines as that on the Jumna is. There is generally a much broader tarai (the tract of land between the high-water mark of the river in the rains and the low-water mark in the hot weather) on the Ganges, extending in some places to three or four miles in width: it is always composed of alluvial soil of the richest description, and produces the best crops in the district. The Ganges is generally bordered on one side by high cliffs, and on the other by low gradually sloping ground, and the cliffs are more often on the Fatehpur than on the Oudh side.

The ravines on the Rind, like those on the Jumna, extend from one to three miles on each side of the river; they vary in character from the most gentle undulations of the soil to the most abrupt and precipitous scarps and cliffs. Owing to the ravines of the Rind meeting those of the Pándú near Pul Shikastah, four miles east of Korah, a belt of ravine and uncultivated land stretches right

across the district from north to south, beginning at Gallahta on the Ganges, and running through Diomai and along the course of the Rind to Dariabad, where that river falls into the Jumna. The largest tract of uncultivated land in the district is where the Jumna, Rind, and Nún ravines all join ; it extends along the Jumna from the west border of the district to Rch in parganah Mutaúr, and stretches north to Amauli and Khunta, thus forming a quadrangle about 20 miles long by 8 or 9 broad, and this is the chief haunt of all the wild animals of the district, pig, nilgæe, antelope, ravine deer (*chikara*), wolves, hyænas, and occasionally leopards being found in it.

Besides the ravine country, the unculturable area of the district is greatly increased by the large úsar maidáns or plains covered with saline efflorescence. These abound chiefly in the west and north-west part of the district, but are found more or less all along the tract of country lying near the Grand Trunk Roal and the East Indian Railway. They are perfectly bare of all vegetation, and are incapable of cultivation, except by removing the úsar and laying down a sufficient layer of new soil over them : they are generally from two to four miles square, and are interspersed among rich and productive ground in a way which is difficult to account for : the border line between the two being often as sharp and clearly defined as if it had been artificially made. They grow fewer and smaller as one proceeds eastward, till towards the Allahabad border of the district they almost disappear, and the whole country is rich and highly cultivated, except where ravines intersect it.

The district is thickly studded with large groves of mango and mahua trees, which add much to the beauty of the landscape, and the produce of which is of very considerable value.

7. *Geology.*—The whole district is an alluvial plain formed by the deposits of the Ganges and the Jumna, when they were united in one great stream before they had shrunk into their present beds. The alluvial deposits are of such a depth that nothing is known of the rocks which underlie them. The general section of the lower Doáb is loam 35 feet, blue silt 30 feet, strong clay 20 feet, resting on a water-bed of reddish sand, from which the water rises 30 feet ; but the beds are not so thick as this in the extreme eastern Doáb, i.e., Fatchpur and Allahabad. The water rises to within 25 feet of the surface in many places, so in these the beds could only be 55 feet thick instead of 85.

8. *Climate.*—The climate is that of an ordinary Doáb district, but from its being in the extreme east of the Doáb, the west winds do not blow so strongly in the hot weather as they do higher up towards Agra ; they are, however, much stronger than in Allahabad, 73 miles further east. The district is somewhat

marshy, and from the size and number of the jhils or lakes the climate is more damp than in an upper Doáb district ; its humidity makes it rather feverish, but natives do not consider it an unhealthy climate, and have the greatest horror of that of Bundelkhand in comparison with it : it is not found unhealthy by Europeans, though the station of Fatehpur was extremely feverish till a large marsh to the west of it was drained about 1850, by digging a number of tanks commonly called the Sattar Taláo, or seventy tanks. In the months of November, December, January, February, and March the climate is most enjoyable, the long summer day being only broken by a week's rain about Christmas. Towards the end of March the weather gets rapidly hotter, and by the 10th of April the hot weather has fairly set in ; from then till the second week in June the heat increases steadily, day by day, till it becomes almost unbearable, and it sometimes remains at 96° to 98° day and night. At a time varying from the 15th June to 7th or even the 10th July, the regular monsoon rains set in, and the thermometer at once falls 10 degrees or more. The rains are very heavy in July and August, and, while they last in full vigour, the temperature remains tolerably low, varying from 75° to 85° ; but in September and October, when the rains begin to fail, it again rises to 90° or more. About the middle of September the nights begin to get cooler, and by the 15th of October the days show a marked diminution of temperature, till at the beginning of November we have arrived once more at the cool weather. The thermometer rarely goes above 105° in a northern verandah even in the hottest weather, but it has been known in 1868 to reach 113° .

The average rainfall of the 17 years from 1859 to 1875 was $35\cdot 7$, the average from 1860 to 1869 was $33\cdot 0$, and the average from 1870 to 1875 (inclusive) was $41\cdot 4$. The highest fall in the 17 years was $53\cdot 5$ in 1870 (when there were great floods), and the lowest was in 1864, when only $16\cdot 3$ fell, but as it was better distributed, there was not so much drought then as in 1868, when $18\cdot 6$ fell, and a partial famine ensued in the following winter.

Frosts occur frequently during December and January, sufficiently severe to freeze small pools of water during the night and to do great damage to the arhar (dál) crops, the flower of which turns quite black and withers away in a single night.

The prevailing wind throughout the year is the westerly one, but in the rains (June to September) this often changes to easterly, and in November and December there is generally very little wind, the west wind commencing to blow again about the end of January.

9. *Minerals and trees.*—From the district being entirely an alluvial plain, there are of course no minerals to be found in it, except the saline earth from which both salt and saltpetre are made. This abounds in all the north and north-easterly parts of the district, and in the northern part of the Fatehpur and Haswa parganahs the manufacture of saltpetre is carried on on a large scale, and a good deal of refined salt is also made, though only surreptitiously, as its manufacture is not allowed. The earth is collected in large pans or filters, and water is allowed to trickle through it till all the saline matter is extracted: the brine is afterwards evaporated and the solid salts deposited.

There are no true forests in the district, but there are three large patches of tree jangal (trees and shrubs mixed) at Baragáon in the Gházipur parganah, at Mandokipur in the Bindki parganah on the banks of the Ganges, and at Khaga in the Hatgaon parganah.

The district is very well wooded with cultivated trees, groves of mango and mahua being the commonest: in the south-east part of the district these groves are very extensive and frequent, but in the north, along the East Indian Railway, they have been greatly destroyed for firewood. Along the roadsides and about the villages and hamlets the shisham (sissu), ním, sirsa, pipal, imli, kachnar, bargad, and amaltas abound, and in the ravines and waste lands the babúl (acacia of both species), the bair, and dhák flourish luxuriantly.

10. *Animals and birds.*—All the domestic animals usually found in Upper India exist in the Fatehpur district, but camels are rare. The cattle usually used are of two breeds, the small wiry Bundelkhandi and the larger heavier animal from the Upper Doáb. Their price varies from £2 to £12 or £15, but the highest prices are only paid for the large trotting bullocks which are used in bailis and raths: a pair of good plough bullocks is obtainable from £4 to £5.

Of wild animals, nearly all found in Upper India occur in this district, except the tiger and the maneless lion. Leopards are uncommon, but are still found in the ravines along the Jumna, Nún, and Rind, particularly about Jafarganj.

Wolves are tolerably common in all the raviny country, and occasionally carry off children, as well as goats and sheep. The wild boar is very common all over the district, and a few years ago was so numerous and aggressive in the south of the Gházipur and Tappahjar parganahs that natives would not venture from one village to another alone: cases in which men tending their fields were attacked without the slightest provocation by wild pigs were quite common.

Of deer there are three kinds—(1) the ordinary antelope or black buck, (2) the chikara or ravine deer, (3) the nilgæe or blue bull. The former inhabits the *úsar* maidáns or plainis, and any open spaces amid the cultivated country he can find: they are most numerous along the Cawnpore border of the district. The ravine deer is found wherever there is raviny or broken ground, and often where the country is rolling or undulating, but never on the level maidáns which are preferred by the antelope. The nilgæe is found in all the jangals, and wherever there is room to conceal his huge frame: he is occasionally met on the maidáns, but never far from trees or shelter of some kind: in autumn he lives in the jowar and bajra fields, and commits great havoc with the crops. Besides these larger animals, the hare, wild cat, jackal, fox, monkey, badger, &c., are found in the district, the first being very common in all parts of it.

Of birds, wild fowl of all kinds are exceedingly abundant; and the jhils, marshes, and rivers swarm with duck, teal, geese, and coot from July, when the rain-teal arrive, till April, when the last of the ducks begin to leave; but some, such as the whistling teal and the brown goose, breed in the district and do not quit it at all. Besides wild fowl the following birds, which more or less come under the description of game, are found—bustard, sand-grouse, rock-pigeon, partridge (grey and black), quail, snipe (jack, painted, and common), pigeons (blue and green), pea-fowl, kulin (large and small) or kulang, curlews (king and common), and plovers (golden-eyed and common).

Of fish, there are in the Ganges and Jumna the rahu (a large coarse fish), the bachua (a delicate palatable fish), and the anwári or mullet. Fish are also found in the jhils and tanks, but they are coarse and muddy, and not really fit for eating, though the lower class natives eat them greedily, and constantly have quarrels over the right of fishing. A few persons earn their living by fishing, but this occurs along the Ganges and Jumna only, as the other rivers are too shallow in the hot weather to be inhabited by fish of any size.

11. Population.—The first census of the North-Western Provinces was taken in 1826 in a very rough way by estimation. The total population was found to be 32,206,806, or 484 to the square mile, on an estimated area of 66,510 miles; this would give Fatehpur, on an area of 1,585 miles, a population of 767,140, but this is beyond doubt a gross over-estimate, as the population has never reached 700,000 since then.

The second census was taken in 1838 during the professional survey of the district, and a third in 1846 for abkari purposes, but no records seem to have been preserved.

The fourth census, and the first moderately accurate one, was taken in 1848 by Mr. C. W. Kinloch, the then collector. This was a house-to-house census, and was no doubt fairly correct. There were found to be 511,132 inhabitants, or 322 to the square mile, and 4½ persons to each house.

A fifth census was taken in 1853, when there were 679,787 inhabitants, or 422 to the square mile, of whom 357,302 were males and 322,485 were females.

A sixth census was taken in 1865, when there were 681,053 inhabitants, or 431 to the square mile, of whom 356,256 were males and 324,530 females.

The seventh and last census was taken in 1872, when the total population was 663,815, or 419 to the square mile, of whom 345,533 were males and 318,282 were females.

The results are shown below :—

Date.	Population.	No. to square mile.	Males.	Females.
1848	511,132	322		
1853	679,787	422	357,302	322,485
1865	681,053	431	356,256	324,530
1872	663,815	419	345,533	318,282

It will be seen therefore that the population increased steadily up to 1865, and it is believed that the census of 1872 was an under-estimate, as there was no reason to suppose that the population was diminishing.

The number of males has steadily decreased in each census and the females increased up to 1865 ; this is probably due to increased accuracy in the census, and the decrease of 6,000 females in the census of 1872 is of doubtful correctness. In 1848 there were 460,461 Hindús to 50,671 Musalmáns ; in 1854 there were 612,437 Hindús to 67,350 Musalmáns.

In 1865 there were 610,000 Hindús to 71,000 Musalmáns in the district, or as $8\frac{7}{12}$ to 1 ; in 1872 there were 593,256 to 70,552, or as $8\frac{2}{3}$ to 1 : so that it may be fairly said that the Hindús are eight times as numerous as the Musalmáns in this district, though the proportion varies very much in different parts of the district.

Thus in the Gházipur tahsíli it is 14 to 1, while in the Khaga tahsíli it is only 5 to 1. In the town of Koth in Ekdalla there are 1,557 Musalmáns to 986 Hindús, or 1½ to 1, while among the female population of the Gházipur parganah the proportion of Musalmáns to Hindús is only 1 to 20. In the following towns the Musalmáns are not less than half the Hindús in numbers ; in the rural

parts the Hindús always exceed the Musalmáns in proportions varying from 5 to 1 to 14 to 1:—

Town.	Total population.	Musalmáns.	Hindús.	Proportion.
1. Koth 2,543	1,557	986	1·6 to 1
2. Haswa 4,205	2,500	1,705	1·5 „ 1
3. Lalauli 3,290	1,844	1,446	1·3 „ 1
4. Fatehpur	... 21,017	10,010	11,007	1 „ 1·1
5. Pauli 1,235	558	677	1 „ 1·2
6. Korah 4,291	1,885	2,406	1 „ 1·3
7. Kurra Sádád	... 1,094	459	635	1 „ 1·4
8. Jahángirnagar	... 1,571	670	901	1 „ 1·5
9. Khairei...	... 1,532	562	970	1 „ 1·7

In the remaining large towns in the district the proportion of Muhammadans is much smaller, as shown in the following table:—

Town.	Total population.	Musalmáns.	Hindús.	Proportion.
Garhi 1,354	423	931	2·2 to 1
Sangáon 2,043	685	1,408	2·2 „ 1
Hatgáon 4,335	1,246	3,089	2·4 „ 1
Jafarganj 2,970	827	2,143	2·6 „ 1
Bindki 5,408	1,883	4,075	3·8 „ 1
Malakapur 3,644	726	2,918	4 „ 1
Khajwa 5,177	965	4,212	4·4 „ 1
Khágá 2,491	427	2,064	4·8 „ 1
Jahanábád 3,793	569	3,224	5·6 „ 1

In the 1865 census¹ the Hindús were to the non-Hindús as $8\frac{7}{12}$ to 1, the agriculturists were to the non-agriculturists as $1\frac{1}{12}$ to 1, or very nearly equal, which is remarkable in a rural district; the males were to the females as $1\frac{1}{11}$ to 1, and the adults were to the children as $1\frac{1}{5}$ to 1.

As regards occupation, of the 680,786 inhabitants, 354,015, or more than half, were cultivators, and 126,970 were labourers: 39,461 were in service, 14,599 were weavers (the chief trade of the district), and 10,890 were barbers (by caste, though not always by profession).

The number of mauzahs or townships was 1,617, so that the average number of persons to a township was 421, and to a square mile 431.

As regards caste, there were 85,354 Brahmans, 54,931 Thakurs, 24,202 Baniahs, 56,576 Ahirs, 27,641 Káchís, 20,475 Garariyas, 38,907 Lodhs, 43,116 Arakhs, 61,403 Kurmís, 24,308 Pasís, 22,015 Kewats; no other caste numbered more than 20,000. There were 69,928 Musalmáns. There were 157,851 houses, or 4·31 persons to each house. In the town of Fatchpur itself

¹ The census of 1865 is taken instead of that of 1872, as the same detailed data on this subject are not available regarding the latter.

there were 4,184 houses to 20,478¹ persons, or 4·89 persons per house. There are only two towns in the district with a population of more than 5,000 persons, Fatehpur itself, as above, and Khajwa with 5,150.

In the census of 1872 the area was 1,585 square miles, the number of mauzahs 2,741, the number of houses 152,777; there were 419 persons and 1·7 villages to the square mile, 242 persons per village, and 4·3 per house.

There were 5,005 masonry houses and 147,772 mud ones. The number of males was 345,533, and of females 318,282: so that the percentage of males was 52· and of females 48·.

The numbers of each religion and sex were as follows:—

Hindús	...	Males	310,225
		Females	283,081
				Total	<u>593,256</u>
Musalmáns	...	Males	35,305
		Females	35,249
				Total	<u>70,554</u>
Christians	...	Males	3
		Females	2
				Total	<u>5</u>

There were therefore 89·4 per cent. of Hindús and 10·6 per cent. of Musalmáns. There were 2·3 per cent. persons over 60 years of age, and 12,763 adult males who could read and write, or 3·6 per cent. The total agricultural population was 344,748, or 51·9 per cent. of the whole. The total area of assessed land was 1,577 square miles, of which 535 were uncultivable, 172 cultivable, and 869 cultivated. The unassessed uncultivable area was only 7 miles. The land revenue was £142,147, and the rates and cesses on land £142,431, while their incidence was Rs. 2-2-1 per culturable acre. As regards occupation, there were 2,518 professional, 22,680 domestic, 4,564 commercial, 125,089 agricultural, 29,419 industrial, and 44,865 indefinite, out of a total of 229,135 males above 15 years of age.

The numbers of the four great castes were as follows in 1872:—

Brahmans.	Rajputs.	Bauihas.	Other castes.	Musalmáns.
74,388	44,566	21,842	452,460	70,554

12. *Races and castes.*—From the above figures it will be seen that the whole population of the district consists of Hindús and Musalmáns; there are

¹ Given thus in Census Report, page 7, table VI., but the population is elsewhere given as 21,017.

no traces of any non-Aryan or aboriginal races, unless the Doims, Chamárs, Pásis, and other of the lowest caste (or outcaste) Hindús be held to belong to them ; the higher caste Hindús always maintain this opinion, but it is doubtful whether they have any sufficient reasons to support it. The lower caste men are no doubt darker, shorter, uglier, and more sparingly made than the Brahmans, Rajputs, and Baniahs ; but this may easily be the effect of centuries of exposure, hard work, and bad living, and is not at all necessarily a sign of difference of race. In the 1865 census 64 different castes are enumerated, of which 10 belong to the Brahmans, 8 to the Rajputs, 4 to the Baniahs, and 42 to the lower castes. The Muhammadans are roughly divided into Moghals, Patháns, Saiads, and Shekhs, who are said to number 1359, 12,247, 4,105, and 26,828 respectively ; but the numbers are quite unreliable, for every man, who has the least pretence to do so, calls himself by one of the three first distinctive names, and if he has none he is called a *Shekh*. In the Tappah Jár pargana there is a large number of converted Rajputs, who still often call themselves Rajputs, though they are Musalmáns in religion : and there are also a good many of these in the Gházipur parganah in the villages along the Jumna river.

At Koth, in the Ekdala parganah, on the Jumna, is settled a tribe of Kohkar Patháns, under their head, Shekh Ahmad Bakhsh Khan Bahádur, who was formerly a leading pleader at the bar of the Sadr Court, North-Western Provinces, when it was at Agra. Through his energy and wealth they are extending their possessions, and bringing large quantities of waste ground under cultivation. All the Muhammadans in the district can be traced to immigrations and settlements made in the time of the Oudh viziers, with three exceptions : these are (1) the Musalmáns of Korah, who settled there much earlier than the time of the Oudh Nawabate ; (2) the Kohkar Patháns of Koth (mentioned above), who came to Fatehpur in the time of Shaháb-ud-din Ghori, (1:94 A.D.) ; and (3) the Panni Patháns of Fatehpur itself, who can prove their existence at Fatehpur as men of considerable position in the time of Bahádur Shah 1st (1710 A.D.)

Fatehpur ranks 19th out of the 35 districts of the North-Western Provinces in the Muhammadanism of its population, and is 3·6 per cent. below the average of all the districts. The south-west portion of the district, including the tahsilis of Korah (12 to 1), Kaliánpur (11 to 1), and Gházipur (14 to 1), is very purely Hindú, the proportion of Hindús always exceeding 11 to 1 ; while the north-east portion, comprising the tahsilis of Fatehpur (7 to 1), Khaga

(5 to 1), and Khakreru (7 to 1), is considerably Muhammadanized, the proportion of Musalmáns being never less than 1 in 7, and rising in Khaga to 1 in 5. The Muhammadans are generally fairly well off and prosperous, being more energetic than the Hindús, and a large proportion of them being small zemindars, but there is a large number in the towns of Fatehpur and Koráh reduced to absolute poverty by the removal of the means of subsistence which they used to have under the Oudh Government, and even to some extent until Oudh was annexed in 1856. Of the Hindús, the Rajputs, Brahmans, and Khatri Baniahs form the upper and more prosperous classes : there are a large number of Thakur zemindars in the district, with a few Kayaths and Brahmans, and here and there a Kori or Kurmi or Ahir, who has raised himself by industry or by taking service.

The Kurmis (particularly in the parganahs of Ekdala and Dhata, where they are very numerous) are a hard-working, steady, peaceable race of good agriculturists, who pay higher rents, and pay them more easily than any other caste : the Thakurs as cultivators are quarrelsome and sometimes lazy, and do not make good tenants. There are villages owned by Kayath landholders and cultivated by Thakur peasants, often old zemindars who have been ousted, where the landlord dare not show his face from one year's end to the other, and where his agent collects his rents surrounded by a strong body of peons and at peril of his own life.

The Brahmans who are not landholders or in service are chiefly found at Shiorajpur, Bhitura, Asni, and other places of pilgrimage along the Ganges, where many are Gangaputrs and superintend the bathing, others are priests in the temples, or guides and caterers for the pilgrims who come to bathe.

The Ahirs, Lodhs, Arakhs, and Pásis, who together number 162,907, or one-fourth of the population of the district, are a rather turbulent and quarrelsome set, who, however, often make good cultivators under Thakur masters ; it is from them the criminal classes of the district are chiefly recruited, and they furnish at the same time a large proportion of the village watchmen, peons, and landlords' servants.

The Kachis may be classed with the Kurmis as industrious and diligent cultivators, and, like them, are very peaceable and valuable as tenants : the two castes together number 89,044, or about one-seventh of the population of the district : they are its agricultural backbone, and without them the produce of the land would soon fall off.

The Kewats and Garariyas, numbering together 42,490, are chiefly engaged, the former with their boats and fishing, the latter with their flocks and herds, but many are also cultivators; they are less turbulent than the Ahirs, Pásis, &c., but less industrious and tractable than the Kurmis and Kachis.

13. *Town and village population.*—There are 6 tahsilis, 13 parganahs, and 2,741 villages in the district; of these latter 1,799 have less than 200 inhabitants; 614 have 200 to 500; 249 have 500 to 1,000; 55 have 1,000 to 2,000; 17 have 2,000 to 3,000; 6 have 3,000 to 5,000; 1 has 15,000 to 20,000.

There is therefore only one town (Fatehpur) with more than 5,000 inhabitants, and that has 20,478: there are no fortified or walled towns in the district, though there are plenty of mud and even brick forts scattered about it, particularly along the Jumna and Rind rivers.

The total number of the enclosures in the district was 126,929; the total number of houses was 152,777, of which 5,005 were built with skilled labour and 147,772 with unskilled.

The houses in villages are generally mud-roofed (flat), but occasionally tiled; and in the towns tiles are used very commonly. In the large towns, such as Fatehpur, Bindki, Korah, Jahanabad, Haswa, Hatgáon, Koth, &c., there are large two and three storied houses built of burnt brick, but of course the vast majority of houses are merely mud-built sheds with walls made of mud heaped up with the hands, and a mud roof supported on rough logs or beams with wattles of the aragh plant intertwined. The landowners generally have these logs and aragh wattles replaced by sawn beams and planks. The larger houses belonging to wealthy families are always built round a courtyard as on the continent of Europe, and many families live in the one enclosure, although not of course on flats as in Europe, but in separate apartments placed side by side on the ground floor. A small garden is sometimes included in the enclosure, but more often it is reserved for fastening up cattle, for bathing, and other domestic purposes; and the garden, where there is one, projects from one side of the enclosure, and is walled in by a separate wall.

As there are 2,741 villages and 1,585 square miles in the district, there is on an average one village to every .58 square miles, or about 1½ villages to each square mile, and the average number of inhabitants in each village is 242.

The following towns have a population exceeding 3,000 according to the 1865 and the 1872 censuses :—

No.	Town.	Parganah.	Population.
1	Fatehpur	...	1865. 1872.
2	Garha	Ekdalla	21,071 19,879
3	Khajwa	Korah...	5,274 1,259
4	Sarauli	Ekdalla	5,77 4,094
5	Hatgáon	Hatgáon	4,353 2,352
6	Korah...	Korah ...	4,335 4,786
7	Haswa...	Haswa	4,291 3,001
8	Bindki	Bindki	4,205 3,934
9	Jamráon	Fatehpur	4,082 3,547
10	Kurra Kannik	Mutaur	3,931 2,446
11	Jahanabad	Korah...	3,845 3,419
12	Malákápur	Korah ...	3,793 3,247
13	Asothar	Ghazipur	3,644 2,722
14	Sijauli	Korah...	3,624 3,018
15	Sah ...	Aiah-Sah	3,550 590
16	Rámpur Tharión	Haswa...	3,540 2,724
17	Chándpur	Korah...	3,525 969
18	Mauhár	Bindki	3,506 2,020
19	Gunír...	Kutia Gunír	3,448 2,857
20	Lalauli	Mutaur	3,384 1,305
			3,290 2,813

14. *Value of house and furniture.*—The number of houses and average number of occupants has been given in section 14; there are 30 kacha or mud-built houses to every one pakka or brick house. The cost of building a two-storied large brick house would be from £200 to £500, but prices of material and labour are rising every year on account of the great demand for them in Allahabad; a second class house would cost from £10 to £100, and a third class one from £1 to £2.

15. *Trades-unions.*—As in other districts, there are no organized trades-unions in the English sense of the word, but the powerful caste pancháyats answer very much the same purpose, though they have a much wider field of action than an English trades-union has.

Goldsmiths, grain dealers, cloth merchants, and other traders have guilds which regulate their trade customs.

The Kúrmi and Káchi cultivators in parganahs Ekdalla and Dháta sometimes unite together to resist enhancements of their rents. They then pay a fixed rate per plough or per field towards a general defence fund, from which the expenses of defending the actions brought by zamindars are defrayed. Blacksmiths, masons, carpenters, &c., often enforce very strict labour rules among their communities: an artizan is not allowed to work for lower wages or during longer hours than his brethren, and piece-work is discouraged and limited as much as possible.

16. *Village communities.*—The villages in this district, as in nearly all in the North-West, may be classified into three kinds, according to the modes in which the land is held and the Government revenue paid:—

(1.) *Zamindari.*—Where the whole of the land belongs to several owners in joint occupation, one (or more) of the owners is usually selected by the rest to manage the estate and to collect the Government revenue and pay it in to Government. In these villages there are no pattiis or separate shares of land marked off from the rest, but each proprietor owns a defined proportion of the total produce of the estate.

(2.) *Imperfect Pattidari*—Where the village is partly held by several owners in joint occupation, and partly by several owners in severalty or separate occupation. Here the tenure is partly of the first class and partly of the third class, and each portion is managed as if it were a separate estate belonging to that class.

(3.) *Pattidari.*—Where the land has been completely divided among the sharers, and is held by several owners in severalty, but under one tenure as regards the Government. Here the lands and homesteads are entirely divided off to each owner, but the whole estate remains liable for the Government revenue or any part of it.

There is also a fourth kind of mahál or estate called bhaiachára, where, though it belongs to the second or third class, the rights and interests of each co-sharer are not determined by his ancestral share, but by custom or possession. In all these classes of estates the settlement of the revenue to be paid to Government is a joint settlement, *i.e.*, all the co-sharers are responsible for the fulfilment of the contract, and all the co-sharers, jointly and severally, and the entire mahál are responsible for the whole of the revenue.¹

17. *Condition of the people.*—Among the Hindús of the district (if the classification adopted in the Bombay Gazetteer be accepted) the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the 1st class, or having incomes over £100 a year, £96 to £180; (2) for those in the 2nd class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 a year, about £24 to £60; and (3) for those in the 3rd class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns it would be rather more, as their habits are somewhat more expensive.

The mass of the population is as poor as the lower agricultural classes are in all districts in the North-Western Provinces. An agricultural labourer receives Rs. 3 to 4 a month, and has to support a wife and two or three children

¹ For a further description see under article "Allahabad."

on that. The wife earns, when well and in the season, perhaps Rs. 2 a month, but she rarely works continuously, being prevented by maternal and other duties, and often being unable to procure work. The children after they are ten years old may earn from Re. 1 to Rs. 2 a month if lucky and healthy. These classes have, of course, nothing to fall back on, and in sickness, or when work is slack, they starve if not assisted. The peasant with a small holding is very little better off, as he is so much at the mercy of the seasons and is invariably in debt to his money-lender. When he has paid his rent and fed and clothed himself and his family, he has nothing left even in a prosperous season, and in one even slightly unfavourable he invariably increases considerably the burthen of that debt, which he has never been free from, which he probably inherited from his fathers, and which he will certainly hand down to his descendants.

18. *Character of the soil.*—The Fatehpur district contains 1,585 square miles ; of this all but 8 is assessed. Of the 1,577 miles of assessed land 585 is uncultivable, 172 is cultivable, and 869 is cultivated. The soil consists of the three kinds ordinarily found in the Doáb and neighbouring districts, *viz.*, (1) dumat, or clay and sand ; (2) bhúr or balua, or sandy ; and (3) mattiár, or rich clay. Where there are a great many small proprietors the owner often cultivates all, or nearly all, his land himself, but, as a rule, the greater portion is leased to cultivating tenants.

The whole of the district is liable to re-assessment for Government revenue, there being no permanently settled estates, except where maáfis or alienations of the revenue have been made for special purposes as rewards for good service. The new settlement was commenced in 1871, and will probably be concluded in 1878. The assessment of the revenue will be somewhat lighter than it was in the former settlement.

The soil of the greater part of the district is fertile and good ; a broad band stretching from parganah Bindki in the north-west to parganah Dhata in the south-east is very fertile, and with moderate irrigation produces admirable crops. The west of the district is very much cut up with ravines and has more bare úsar plains, but even in parganah Korah the central part is highly cultivated. There is some very fertile black soil (már) in places along the Jumna, particularly at Lalauli.

19. *Course of tillage.*—The agricultural year may be held to begin with the first fall of rain in June ; the earth is then immediately ploughed up and sown for the kharif or autumn harvest. This ripens in October and November, but long before that some of the quick-growing rice crops and

smaller pulses, &c., are fit for cutting. The first is the sáthi or 60-day rice, which is sown in the middle of June and is ripe by the middle of August; then come mot, sáwá, makra, and other quick-growing cereals; and in October and November the jowár and bájra, which are the staple autumn crops, are ripe. As soon as the rains are over and the water off the land, the wheat, barley, gram, oats, peas, and other winter crops are sown in October, and these ripen from March to May, according to the nature of the season and situation. Autumn and winter crops are not often sown on the same land in the same year, but if the rice crop has been got off early, the land may be made to produce a spring crop too. The land is both manured and irrigated for the spring crops, but though sometimes manured, it is of course never irrigated for the autumn crops, as these grow during the periodical rains when the soil is saturated.

20. *Years of scarcity.*—The first famine of which there is any record in the Doáb was that of 1345, when even the most fertile land relapsed into a wilderness. There was again a great famine in 1631, but this was worst in the Upper Doáb.

The famine of 1770 is the first of which any records are preserved, and it is known that boats carrying grain from Korah to Allahabad for the troops there were plundered by the starving people, and that the boats took three months to complete the 100 miles voyage, through the constant interruptions to their progress which they experienced.

The next great famine was in 1783-84, and this ravaged all the country from the Karamnásá to Lahore: it was not so bad in the Lower Doáb.

In 1803-4 a great famine visited the whole of the north-west, only three years after the cession of the Doáb to the British. In Cawnpore and Fatehpur no rain fell after the 12th August, the autumn crops failed entirely, and most of the cattle died.

In 1837-38 occurred the first serious famine which prevailed after our rule was thoroughly established over the whole North-West Provinces. The rains were extremely partial in 1837, and scarcity had set in by August: grain plundering and dacoities became common, and as the autumn passed on it became evident that famine was again upon the land. The kharif failed throughout the whole Doáb, and by March 1838 the people were dying by thousands in Cawnpore, but Fatehpur was not quite so badly off: some of the spring harvest was saved, and of course fetched high prices: only Rs. 49,624 of revenue was remitted, and Rs. 11,368 granted for relief works.

In 1860 hardly any rain fell in the Doáb up to the 13th July; there was then a week's rain in most places, but in August and September there was none,

or very little. The worst distress, however, never reached the Lower Doáb, and Fatehpur escaped comparatively uninjured.

In 1864 only 16 inches of rain fell, and the rice crops suffered greatly, but there was no actual famine.

In 1868 the rain, though more copious, was badly distributed, and except one heavy fall in September, none fell after the middle of July. This fall prevented the crops from perishing utterly, but the autumn harvest was very poor, and as the winter passed away without rain, it became evident that the spring crops would fail in all high or dry places where the land could not be irrigated. In January 1869 relief works were set in hand on a large scale in the southern parganahs, and about 200 miles of raised roads were constructed. This gave employment to the starving poor till the spring crops were cut in April, and the worst pressure was thus relieved.

There has been no severe distress in the district since 1869, although in 1870 the heavy floods did a great deal of damage to the autumn crops.

21. Communications and trade.—The chief roads in this district are:

(1.) The Grand Trunk Road, which runs through it the whole length from east to west, about 60 miles. It enters the district nine miles east of Khágá railway station and tahsīl, and passing between that town and the railway, goes on by Belinda to Fatehpur. About six miles east of Fatehpur it joins the old Moghal road which ran from Agra through Etáwah, Korah, Fatehpur, and Karrah to Allahabad, and the two run together to about a mile west of Fatehpur, where the Moghal road diverges to the south to Korah. From Fatehpur the Grand Trunk Road goes on by Malwah (nine miles), Mauhar (ten miles), and Aung to the western border of the district, crossing the Pandu Naddi, which here forms the boundary, by a masonry bridge of three arches, which is the only large work on the Grand Trunk Road in this district.

(2.) The Moghal road, which, entering the district from the Ghatampur parganah of Cawnpore at the town of Jahanabad, runs through that and Korah to Khajwa, also a town of some importance in Musalmán times. Three miles further on it passes through Bindki, a thriving cattle and grain mart of very recent origin, and traversing that parganah and Kutia Gunir, it joins the Grand Trunk Road a mile west of Fatehpur. It follows this to near Belinda, six miles east of Fatehpur, and there turning to the north-east, it runs through parganahs Hatgáon and Kutlah (passing through the town of Hatgáon) till it leaves the district six miles west of Karrah. It is the most important road in the district, from the number of large towns on it, and from its being the natural line of traffic for all goods going east and west. It is bridged throughout its length

of 60 miles, and is metalled from Fatehpur westward, but not eastward, as it is from that point parallel to and not far from the Grand Trunk Road.

(3.) The Bithaura road, which runs eight miles due north from Fatehpur to the Bithaura ferry over the Ganges into Oudh. It is bridged, and has hitherto been kept up as a metalled road, but it is gradually falling into disrepair. Bithaura was at one time the civil station and headquarters of the district, and it was then of course necessary to connect it with the Grand Trunk Road, but the road is now chiefly used by pilgrims.

(4.) The Dalamaū road to Rae Bareli in Oudh. This road runs in a north-east direction in a perfectly straight line from Fatehpur to the Dalamaū ghāt on the Ganges, and thence to Rae Bareli. It was made as a military road at Lord Clyde's request, and is raised very high, and bridged and metalled throughout, but there is no very great traffic on it.

(5.) The road to Gházipur, Asothar, and Ekdalla, running 48 miles south-east from Fatehpur through the parganahs of Gházipur, Ekdalla, and Dhata, and finally joining the Allahabad and Bánḍa road near the Rajápur Ghāt over the Jumna.

This was always a road of considerable importance, and in the famine of 1869 it was raised, bridged, and straightened throughout.

(6.) The Bánḍa road, running 24 miles south-west from Fatehpur to Chillatara ghāt on the Jumna, and thence to the station of Bánḍa. This road passes through the Fatehpur, Aiah-Sah, and Mutaur parganahs and by the towns of Bauha and Sah ; it is raised, bridged, and metalled throughout, and has considerable traffic.

The rivers Ganges and Jumna afford water communication throughout the whole length of the district on the northern and southern boundaries respectively, but they are the only navigable rivers in the district. There is still a great deal of cotton, grain, stone, and other heavy traffic on them, though of course the railway and the Grand Trunk Road have greatly diminished its dimensions and its frequency.

The chief trading places in the district are—(1) Fatehpur, which has a trade in hides, grease, soap, and grain ; (2) Bindki, the great grain and cattle mart of the district, where the Bundelkhand and Doáb dealers meet and exchange their produce and animals : most of the grain from Bundelkhand is sent off from the Mauhar station, five miles north of Bindki ; (3) Khajwa, which was a flourishing town in Musalmán times, but is now chiefly noted for its brass and copper work, lotahs, dekchis, abkhoras, and all cooking and drinking vessels being specially made here ; (4) Korah-Jahanabad, the Moghal capital of the Subah of Korah,

now best known for its trade in metal work, whips, and skins; (5) Naraini, in parganah Haswa, is a great market for grain and local produce; and (6) Bowha, in parganah Sah, has a considerable trade.

22. *Money-lending, wages, and prices.*—(1). The rates of interest at present (1877) charged in the district are approximately as follows:—

- (a.) In small transactions, when articles are pawned, from 12 to 15 per cent.
- (b.) In small transactions, when personal security is given, from 18 to 37 per cent.
- (c.) In large transactions, when jewels, &c., are pledged, from 6 to 12 per cent.
- (d.) When bankers lend money to bankers on personal security, 6 to 9 per cent.
- (e.) When land is mortgaged, from 9 to 18 per cent.

(2.) The rates of wages are as follows:—

- (a.) Coolies and unskilled town labourers, $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ pence a day.
- (b.) Agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 pence a day.
- (c.) Bricklayers and carpenters, 6 pence to 2 shillings a day.

Female labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men.

Boys of from 12 to 16 get two-thirds of the wages of full-grown men.

Boys younger than that and girls from one-half to one-third.

(3.) The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were as follows:—

	<i>Number of seers 2lbs. for a rupee (2s.)</i>			
	1st April.	1st August.	1st December.	Average.
	Seers.	Seers.	Seers.	Seers.
Wheat	...	27	26	25
Rice	13	16	14
Jowar	42	...	44
Bájrá	40	...	35
Dál	29	29	28

23. *History.*—The earlier history of the district of Fatehpur, so far as it is known, will be found in the article on "Allahabad."

In the 18th century it formed part of the Subah of Korah and was under the government of the Nawábs of Oudh; previous to that it had at one time been part of the extensive possessions of the Rájás of Argal, in parganah

Korah, whose sway extended from near Kanauj down to Allahabad : after that it fell to the Thakur Rájás of Asothar, in parganah Gházipur, and remained under them till first the Patháns, and then the Musalmán Emperors of Delhi extended their sway over the Doáb : it was finally placed under the Governor of Oudh, till, in 1759, he finally revolted from the Emperor. In 1765 his independence was recognized by the English, and in 1775 Benares was ceded to them.

Meanwhile, in 1735, Ajaju, a landholder of Korah, revolted against the Oudh Government and invited the Marhattas to join him. He was defeated and slain, but they completely overran the whole Lower Doáb in the following year, and retained it till 1750, when it was taken from them by the Patháns of Fatehgarh. In 1753 Safdar Jang, vazir of Oudh, reconquered it, and held it independently of the Emperor Shah Alam till 1765, when the English restored it to the latter. He retained it till 1774, when, he being a prisoner in the hands of the Marhattas, the English sold it to the Nawáb of Oudh for 50 lakhs.

The Nawáb being always in arrears with tribute, it was at last agreed that he should cede Allahabad and Korah to the English in payment for the tribute, and the district of Fatehpur passed into our hands on the 10th November, 1801. From then till 1826 part of it was included in Cawnpore and part in Allahabad, and there was no separate district of Fatehpur : however, in 1814 a register of the judge's court of Allahabad was appointed to have jurisdiction from Korah to Karrah, both civil and criminal.

When ceded in 1801, the province of Allahabad had 10 sub-divisions, two of which were Sirkar Korah and Sirkar Karrah. The district of Fatehpur was formed from four parganahs of Korah, viz., Gunir, Kutia, Korah, and Bindki, and nine of Karrah, viz., Gházipur, Aiah-Sah, Ekdala, Dháta, Kutla, Mutaur, Fatehpur, Haswa, and Hatgaon. Mír Ilmas Ali Khan was then the chakladar under the Oudh Government, and he sublet five of them—Fatehpur, Haswa, Gházipur, Aiah-Sah, and Mutaur, to his adopted son Hussen Bakhsh, and the remainder were rented by Zain-ul-ab-din Khan. The English gradually established their rule, till, as abovementioned, in 1814 a separate register or joint magistrate was appointed : he resided at Bithaura on the Ganges, six miles north of Fatehpur; but in 1825 the civil station was transferred to Fatehpur, and in 1826 it was constituted a separate district.

In 1831 the appointments of magistrate and collector were united; and in 1833 a joint magistrate was appointed, and in 1835 a judge. Nothing further of note occurred till the outbreak of the mutiny in 1857.

On the 6th June news of the mutiny at Cawnpore reached Fatehpur. On the 8th a treasure guard returning from Allahabad mutinied, and on the 9th the mob rose, burnt the houses, and plundered all the property of the European residents: the next day all the civil officers escaped to Bânda, except Mr. Tucker, the judge, who was murdered. On the 28th June the fourteen fugitives from Cawnpore landed at Shiorajpur in parganah Bindki, and were all killed but four, who escaped by swimming to the Oudh shore. The district remained in the hands of the rebels throughout the month, but on the 30th General Neill sent off Major Renaud's column from Allahabad to Cawnpore. On the 11th July General Havelock's force joined Renaud's at Khaga, and on the 12th they defeated the rebels at Belinda. On the 13th they attacked and shelled Fatehpur, drove the rebels out, and took possession of the place.

On the 15th Havelock advanced to Aung and drove the rebels back on the Pândû Naddi, where a second battle was fought the same day, and they were driven out of the district in full flight on Cawnpore. We could not, however, retain possession of the district except just along the Grand Trunk Road, and order was not finally re-established till after the fall of Lucknow and the return of Lord Clyde's army to Cawnpore, when the Gwalior mutineers were finally driven off.

24. *Administration.* (a.) *Civil.*—Up to 1871 Fatehpur was the seat of a civil and sessions judgeship, but this was transferred in that year to Bânda, and it is now subordinate to the judgeship of Cawnpore. The sub-judge was transferred at the same time to Bânda, and there is now only a munsif at Fatehpur.

(b.) *Revenue and criminal.*—The revenue and criminal administration is superintended by a magistrate and collector, assisted generally by one joint magistrate, one assistant, one uncovenanted deputy collector, and one district superintendent of police.

There is now (1877) also a staff of settlement officials in the district, consisting of one settlement officer, one assistant settlement officer, and two settlement deputy collectors. There are six tahsîldars or sub-collectors and magistrates, one sub-deputy opium agent, one inspector of customs, and two special magistrates. Of these, the magistrate and joint magistrate are magistrates of the 1st class, the assistant and deputy of either the 1st or 2nd class, and the special magistrates, are both of the 2nd class; of the sub-magistrates, one is 2nd class and five are 3rd; the magistrates, joint and assistant, are Europeans, the rest natives.

The number of cases decided by each court were as follows:—

Magistrate, joint and assistant magistrates	1,762
Deputy magistrates	
Collector	
Deputy collectors	1,215

The new settlement was commenced in the year 1871, and will probably be concluded in 1878 : it has at present resulted in a decrease of revenue from £57,758 to £54,003, or by £3,754, and it has cost £26,175.

(c.) *Police*.—In the year 1875 the total strength of the regular police force was 522. This number consisted of one district superintendent, 81 officers on salaries below Rs. 100, 14 mounted and 315 foot constables, besides five officers and 106 men paid from non-provincial revenues. The cost of maintaining this force was £6,732. The total strength of the police of the Fatehpur district is one man to every three square miles, and one man to every 1,272 of the general population.

The cost of maintenance is equal to £4-4-0 per square mile, and 2½d per head of population.

There are 1,898 chaukidars or village watchmen to 1,395 inhabited villages; their cost is £6,898; and there are 315 inhabitants to each watchman.

(d.) *Jail*.—There are a district jail and a magistrate's lock-up at Fatehpur, besides the ordinary police and tahsili lock-ups.

(1.) The district jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 402 prisoners, of whom 382 were males and 20 females.

It is under the charge of the civil surgeon, who has under him a jailor and 34 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 33-5-0.

The average outturn of labour was Rs. 5.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 779.

The rate of mortality was 2·17 per cent. of average strength.

(2.) The lock-up contained in 1875 a daily average of 21 under-trial prisoners, of whom 20 were males and 1 was female.

(e.) *Postal and Telegraph*.—There are 22 post-offices in the district, of which 14 are imperial and 8 are district offices. There is no Government telegraph station, but there are five railway telegraph offices, 1 at Fatehpur, 1 at Malwah, 10 miles west, 1 at Mauhar, 19 miles west, 1 at Bahrampur, 13 miles east, and 1 at Khaga, 21 miles east.

25. *Revenue and finance*.—The district local funds amounted in 1875 to £22,156, and the expenditure to £32,498.

There is only one municipality in the district; of this the receipts and expenditure were as follows in 1875 :—

Municipality.	Population.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Incidence of taxation per head.
		£	£	Rs. a. p.
Fatehpur	... 19,431	1,314	1,196	0 9 0

The whole amount of revenue raised in the district, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, in 1876 was £165,409, or on a population of 663,877 an incidence per head of 4·9 shillings: out of this £54,404, or 32 per cent. of the total receipts, was returned to the district in payment for its administration.

26. *Medical statistics.*—There is only one dispensary in this district, at Fatehpur itself.

During the year 1875, 5,273 persons in all were treated in this dispensary, of whom 4,863 were out-door patients and 410 in-door patients. The total receipts were £330, and total establishment charges £183.

The total number of deaths in the year 1875 was 11,870, or 17·88 per 1,000 of the population. The mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 during the previous six years was 20·48.

There were 10,575 vaccine operations in the district in 1875, of which 5,957 were known to have been successful.

27. *Education.*—There were 260 schools in the district in 1875, with 6,416 scholars, which gives an average area of 6·09 square miles for each school, and a percentage of ·96 scholars on the total population. Of these, 254 are male schools and six female schools; the total cost was £2,662, of which £610 was paid from provincial and £2,052 from local sources.

28. *Fairs and Chief Towns.*—There is only one large fair in the district—the one held at Shiorajpur on the Ganges, in parganah Bindki, in the first week in November. It is both a religious and commercial fair, and from 20,000 to 50,000 people often attend it. Horses, cattle, whips, shoes, and toys are the chief articles sold; there is one great bathing day when all the Hindus bathe, and the busy days of the fair are that and the day before and after it.

There are fairs at Bithaura, Adampur, and other places on the Ganges, but none of any importance.

29. *Archaeology*.—In Fatehpur itself the chief objects of antiquarian interest are :—

(1.) The tomb of Almas Ali Khan, the last chakladar, and the Jama Masjid, or chief mosque. The age of the mosque is not known, but it was probably built at the end of the eighteenth century. The tomb is, of course, of later date : these are on the Grand Trunk Road in the middle of the town.

(2.) The mosque and tank of Hakim Abdul Hasan of Korah : these are on the south-west side of the town.

In the district are—

(1.) At Khajwa—(a) the Bagh Badsháhi, a large enclosed garden with a Báradari at the eastern end, and a large masonry tank outside it ; (b) the gateway and walls of the old sarai inside the town : the old Moghal road to Etawah and Agra ran through this, and the massive wooden gates, used to close the road at night, were still existing a few years ago ; (c) the Hindu Shiowála or temple to Shiva at the west end of the town, and the masonry tank called Randon-ka-taláo.

(2.) At Korah Jahanabad—(a) the Báradari of Ráo Lál Bahádur, a large enclosed garden with two garden houses in it, which were built towards the close of the last century under the Oudh vazirs ; (b) the Thakurdwára, opposite to the Báradari, is modern, but of some interest ; (c) the Sorahi, or mausoleum, a mile west of Jahanabad, on the Ghátampur road ; (d) the sarai or travellers' halting place in Jahanabad with its old walls and gates.

GHAZIPUR.

GHAZIPUR.

A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. *Position and area.*—The district of Gházipur—bounded on the north by the district of Azamgarh and by the Bengal district of Saran, on the east by Saran, on the south by the Bengal district of Shahábád, and on the west by the districts of Benares and Jaunpur—lies between $25^{\circ} 18' 15''$ and $26^{\circ} 2' 30''$ north latitude, and between $83^{\circ} 5' 0''$ and $84^{\circ} 43' 30''$ east longitude, and contains an area of 2,167 square miles and a population of 1,345,570 persons, or 621 to the square mile.

2. *Subdivisions.*—The district is divided into six tahsils or sub-collectorates and 18 parganahs, as follows, from east to west:—

Tahsil.	Parganah.				Revenue, 1876.
					£
1. Balliah	{ 1. Doabah 2. Balliah 3. Karrid	...	6,780
2. Muhammadábád	15,237
3. Rasarah	11,713
4. Gházipur	1. Garha 2. Dahma 3. Muhammadábíd 1. Kopáchit 2. Laknesar 3. Zahúrábád 1. Kerenda 2. Gházipur 3. Pachotar 4. Shádiábád 1. Khanpur 2. Saiadpur 3. Bahariátád 1. Zamániah 2. Mahaich	...	4,102 755 15,383 7,063 2,027 9,702 5,110 8,952 7,212 10,805 3,120 15,285 4,209 17,695 6,243
5. Saiadpur			
6. Zamániah			

3. *Physical geography and boundaries.*—The district is an irregular oval in shape and consists of two unequal parts separated by the river Ganges: the northern or cis-Ganges portion is a belt of alluvial land some 20 miles wide, stretching along the north shore of the Ganges from the point where the Gumti river flows into it to that where it is joined by the river Ghogra, and

terminating in the triangular delta between the Ghogra and the Ganges : this again is divided into two portions by the river Sarju, of which the western is twice as large as the eastern ; the southern or trans-Ganges portion of the district is only about a sixth of the size of the northern, and is a tract of irregular shape lying between the Ganges and the Karmnāsa, which meet at its eastern extremity.

No hill or natural eminence is to be found in the district, but both north and south of the Ganges there is an upland and a lowland country : the rise from the latter to the former is very marked, and sometimes enough so to cause the appearance of a low range of hills : this rise is often now some miles from any river, but it will always be found to have been at one time the bank of a river in the former channel of which the lowland has been formed by fluvial deposits.

The general level of upland tract gradually falls from a height of about 250 feet above the mean sea-level at the west to a height of about 200 feet above the sea on the east of the district. This general upland level is from 10 to 20 feet above the highest, and 50 to 70 feet above the lowest, level of the Ganges : in some few places it obtains a greater elevation.

The general width of the Ghogra is about 8 miles, including the lowland formed in its bed : the Sarju and the Gumti have a width of about two miles. The Ganges with its lowland is about 5 miles broad in the west of the district, and about 16 miles in the east. In high floods the Ganges and the Ghogra unite their waters and sweep across the entire delta between them, except a few raised village sites.

The whole district was at one time no doubt an upland tract, and even comparatively recently the upland tract was much larger than it is now : from time immemorial it has been yearly diminished by the destructive action of the rivers running through it, so that now the area occupied by the river-beds and the lowlands formed in them equals the area of the upland remaining.¹

The course of all the rivers on the north of the Ganges is from north-west to south-east, and the whole district is consequently divided into a series of doábs or tracts between two rivers which are parallel to one another and have the above general direction. The most westerly is that between the Gumti and the Gangi ; this is about 30 miles long and from 2 to 8 broad.

The next is between the Gangi and the Basu, and is about 32 miles long and has an average breadth of 8 miles ; it narrows to a sharp point where the Basu joins the Ganges.

The third is a very long and narrow strip between the Basu and the Mangai ; it is more than 50 miles long and from 2 to 8 broad : where the two

¹ W. Oldham, Memoir of Gházipur, I.

rivers enter parganah Shadiábad it is more than 8 miles broad, and it then gradually narrows till just north of Gházipur itself it is only 2 miles broad; it then expands again till it reaches the Ganges opposite Buxar, and from here (as the Mangai falls into the Sarjú, and not into the Ganges) it turns north-east and includes the whole of parganah Garha.

The fourth is a broad tract between the Mangai and the Sarjú stretching from the north of parganah Pachotar to the place where these two rivers meet: it is about 40 miles long and from 4 to 16 broad, and includes the whole of Pachotar, Zahúrábad, and Dehma. The fifth is the tract between the Sarjú and the Ghogra, and is divided into two parts by the Katehar river: the northern contains Laknesar, Kopachit, and Kharid, and the southern Ballia and the Doabah.

4. *Rivers.*—The large rivers are—(1) the Ganges, (2) the Ghogra, (3) the Sarjú, and (4) the Gumti; but besides these the country north of the Ganges is traversed by three streams—the Gangi, the Basu, and the Mangai—which run about 10 miles apart from north-west to south-east and fall into the Ganges; they are approximately parallel to the Gumti and the Sarjú, between which they flow. During the dry season these streams are reduced to the most insignificant dimensions, and in seasons of unusual drought they entirely fail; but in the rainy season they are broad, deep, and swift.

The Udanti is a large tributary of the Basu, the middle of the three streams, and on the northern border of the district flows the Bhainsahi, a tributary of the Sarjú.

There are no streams worthy of mention in the country to the south of the Ganges. Nallahs or ravines are very common in the upland, but rare in the lowland country; they all become torrents in the rains. In the lowlands broad and gently sloping depressions, which on the rising of the Ganges become channels or creeks of that river, take the place of the narrow but deep ravines of the upland, and serve to carry off the surface drainage. These depressions often penetrate the country to very great distances and preserve their rounded outlines, because the backwater of the Ganges deposits silt, and thus annually repairs any damage done during the rains.

(1.) The Ganges first enters this district at its junction with the Gumti 4 miles west of Saiadpur; it then flows 16 miles eastwards till it reaches the Karendá parganah, when it makes a great bend round that to the south, and returns to its easterly course after 20 miles at the point where the Gangi joins it. It then flows in a course a little north of east past Gházipur on its north bank, and Gahmar, Chausa, and Buxar on its south bank for 32 miles; here the East Indian Railway almost touches it, and the proposed branch of the

Oudh and Rohilkhand line from Akbarpur through Jaunpur to Buxar is to cross the Ganges here. Thence the river flows north-easterly for 16 miles to Ballia, the headquarters of that subdivision, and after making a great horse-shoe bend to the south goes on east till it leaves the district at Revilganj, 6 miles west of Chapra, at its junction with the Ghogra, having had a course of about 120 miles altogether in this district. It receives the Gumti, Gangi, Basu, Mangai, Sarjú, and Ghogra on its north bank, and the Karmnása on its south bank.

(2.) The Ghogra (Ghághra) enters this district at a point 4 miles east of Sikandarpur in Azamgarh and flows south-easterly for about 40 miles, separating this district from the Bengal district of Sáran. The Duh and the Tenguri naddi flow into it on its right or west bank, or rather form loops and channels through which it flows in the rains.

The Ghogra is a very large and powerful river, with even a greater volume of water than the Ganges, which gives its name to the united stream after it leaves this district.

(3.) The Sarjú enters the district in parganah Zahúrábad, and after a south-easterly course of 7 or 8 miles divides it from parganah Laknesar for 10 miles ; it then crosses the south part of parganah Kopachit, passing just north of Chít and cutting through the south-west corner of parganah Ballia ; it flows into the Ganges at the town of Ballia, having had a course of 35 miles altogether in the district. It receives the Mangai on its western bank, and the Katehar on its eastern.

(4.) The Gumti only passes through the south-west corner of the district for 8 miles, and falls into the Ganges 4 miles west of Saiadpur.

(5.) The Mangai is a large tributary of the Sarjú which traverses the centre of the district. It enters in parganah Shádiábád 4 miles west of Jalálíabad, and traverses that parganah in a south-easterly direction for 16 miles ; it then crosses parganahs Pachotar, Muhammadábád, and Gárha in a generally easterly direction for 46 miles, till it reaches Narhi ; it then turns north and flows at once into the Sarjú 6 miles west of Ballia.

5. *Lakes.*—In many cases in this district where a river has formed a new channel, those parts of the old channel adjacent to the new course silt up, leaving at the bend of the river a long and narrow lake. Lakes of this kind have been formed by the Ganges in parganah Zamániah south of the river. In the Kharfd parganah there is a long series of narrow lakes called the "Duh," formed by the Ghogra, which in this district is called the Dehwah. In the rains the Duh is connected with the Ghogra and forms a branch of it ; but in the

dry season the lakes, which are clear and beautiful, and abound with fish, are entirely separated from the Ghogra by natural ridges of silt.

The great Suráha lake in parganah Kharíd was once a northern bend of the river Ganges : the country north of the lake is upland ; all south of it is a fluvial lowland formation. The lake, which is 4 miles broad by 5 miles long, is still connected with the Ganges by a narrow deep cut called the Katehar river, which joins the Ganges and Sarjú at their confluence at Ballia, and serves both to admit the water of the Ganges during the height of the rains, and also as an outlet for the surplus water of the lake. There is another large lake of an S shape about 4 miles north of the Suráha lake and near Bansdih ; it is about 9 miles long and half a mile broad. There is a large lake in the south of parganah Laknesar, 4 miles south of Rasra ; it is about two miles long and a mile broad. There are also two close together in the north of parganah Kopáchit ; the western one is circular with a large island in the centre, and the eastern is oblong, being about 2 miles long and a mile broad. South of the Ganges in Zamániyah there are two lakes, one close to the Ganges and just north of Nasratpur, and the other 3 miles north-east of the first.

6. *Forests and waste lands.*—The soil in many places has a tendency to produce the efflorescent salt called reh, which is most injurious to vegetation, and this tendency is much increased by the obstruction to the drainage of the country consequent on rice cultivation. Soils which, if well washed by thorough drainage, would be entirely free from reh, develop it when water is allowed to stagnate on them till it evaporates, leaving any salts held in solution in deposit on the surface of the ground.

A considerable extent of upland country is also rendered unproductive by the presence of kankar (nodular limestone) at the surface.

There are no forests in the district, and no waste lands except the above úsar (saltpetre) plains, all the rest being one highly-cultivated plain.

7. *Geology.*—The upland tract of this portion of the Ganges valley is believed to be a part of an old delta of the river formed under very different conditions from those at present existing ; the period at which it was formed is thought to have coincided with the Pleiocene period of European geologists, and it is supposed that these beds were of a fresh-water origin, and were fluvial rather than lacustrine ; for no trace is to be found of any ridge of hills, rocks, or other natural barrier capable of retaining the waters of a great lake. The rivers, however, which formed the upland tract were certainly not the same as those now existing, though the existing rivers no doubt formed the low-lying or khadir tract which is now found along their present beds. The upland could

not have been formed by the existing rivers, because (1) the country nearest to the river is not higher than the interior, (2) the upland tracts are never submerged, and (3) kankar or nodular limestone is found everywhere in the uplands, and is never found in the lowlands recently formed by the Ganges. The entire district was at one time upland, and the amount of upland now remaining is diminishing day by day from the erosive action of the great streams which permeate it in every direction ; the two areas are now about equal.¹

8. *Climate.*—The average total rainfall was 40·1 inches for the 11 years from 1860 to 1871 ; during this period the maximum was 50·5 inches in 1861, and the minimum was 21·5 inches in 1868.

The annual mean temperature was 80·56 in 1869, and the lowest monthly mean was 61·03 in January, and the highest 98·64 in May. The rains in this district usually commence from the 15th to the 30th June, and break up about the middle of October. After the close of the rains westerly winds set in and the temperature gradually falls. About Christmas these are succeeded by easterly winds, which last from a week to a month, and are generally accompanied by rain or mist. In February and March hailstorms are not unfrequent. About the middle of May the wind changes from west to east, and the heat is then unbearable till the rains set in. This is one of the hottest and dampest districts in the North-Western Provinces.

The apparent solar time is about 16 minutes 21 seconds slower than the true solar time at noon.

9. *Minerals and Trees.*—The upland tract everywhere contains the impure nodular carbonate of lime, known as kankar and used for metalling roads and making lime. In some places this crops out in masses at the surface, in others it is only found by penetrating through 30 or 40 feet of clay. It exists in some localities as a solid and compact mass, which is almost a rock ; in others as a coarse gravel mixed with fine grains of a ferruginous gritty substance. The rocky and massive kankar can for years resist the action of a violent current, while the small kankar mixed with iron-stone gravel renders the soil in which it exists extremely friable. The kankar is of fresh-water origin, and has been formed by the lime-bearing waters of the Himalayan streams, which contain in solution a large quantity of bicarbonate of lime ; this on exposure to the air gives off carbonic acid, and the insoluble carbonate of lime is formed. While this process is going on, nodules are formed round any small particles of carbonate of lime which may be present. These sources of supply have doubtless existed from the Pleiocene period.

¹ W. Oldham, Memoir of Gházipur, I.

The predominant salt in the reh of this district is the carbonate of soda ; it is prepared in an impure form and exported largely to the east. Saltpetre (nitrate of potash) is also manufactured all over the uplands. Common salt is also found in the north-west of the district, but its manufacture is illicit.¹

10. *Animals, Birds, and Fishes.*—There are but few wild animals in the Gházipur district, and very little game, as the whole country is too highly cultivated. Wild boar, jackals, foxes, wolves, &c., are found, but none of the deer tribe, unless very exceptionally.

All the domestic animals common in Upper India are used here, but the camel, as in the eastern districts generally, is not so common as it is further west. The cattle are of the ordinary Oudh and trans-Ghogra breeds, and are not remarkable in any way. They have not been improved to any extent by cross-breeding with English cattle. There was a stud establishment at Karantadi for many years and horses were bred there for the cavalry, but it has now been abolished.

Of birds, wild fowl of all kinds, such as geese, ducks, teal, coot, water-hens, grebe, &c., abound on the great lakes, but other game-birds are few. Fish are plentiful in both the lakes and rivers, the rahu, pariassi, hilsa, báon (eel), bachua, &c., being the commonest. A full list is given under "Agra."

11. *Population.*—In the census of 1872 there were 2,167 square miles in the district of Gházipur with 3,725 mauzas and 285,007 houses, and a population of 1,345,570. There were 621 persons and 1·7 villages to the square mile, 361 persons per village, and 4·7 persons per house. There were 950 masonry houses and 284,057 mud ones. Of the sexes there were 696,572 males and 648,829 females.

The numbers of each religion and sex were as follows :—

Hindús	... { Males	634,341
	} Females	587,469
				Total	...	1,221,810
Musalmáns,	... { Males	62,155
	} Females	61,800
				Total	...	123,455
Christians,	... { Males	76
	} Females	60
				Total	...	136

¹ Oldham, I.

The percentages of each sex and religion on the total population were as follows :—

Hindús	90·7	Males	51·7
Musalmáns	9·3	Females	48·3

There were 3 per cent. of persons above 60 years of age, and 16,049 males able to read and write. The total agricultural population was 705,609. The area of assessed land was 2,143 square miles, of which 367 were uncultivable, 229 cultivable, and 1,546 cultivated, and there were besides 2 miles of uncultivable unassessed land. The amount of land revenue was £150,444, the rates and cesses on land £12,407, and the incidence of the land revenue per culturable acre was Re. 1-5-2. The percentage of agricultural on total population was 51·7.

The numbers of the chief Hindú castes and Musalmán tribes were as follows :—

Hindús	Brahmans	128,012
	Rajputas	295,355
	Banias	49,538
	Ahirs	171,216
	Chamárs	122,075
	Kaiaths	22,480
	Kurmis	18,136
	Shekhs	26,940
	Saiads	4,525
Musalmáns,	Moghals	570
	Patháns	18,452

The numbers of males above fifteen years in each of the six great classes of occupations were—

Professional	3,172
Domestic	30,065
Commercial	22,098
Agricultural	247,603
Industrial	56,601
Indefinite	85,297
						Total	444,831

There were altogether 3,725 inhabited villages and towns, of which 2,018 contained less than 200 inhabitants ; 992 less than 500 ; 493 less than 1,000 ; 159 less than 2,000 ; 31 less than 3,000 ; 17 less than 5,000 ; 14 less than 10,000 ; and 1 more than 20,000.

The following figures show the comparative results of the censuses of 1853, 1865, and 1872 :—

Area.—This was 2,181 square miles in 1853, 2,222 in 1865, 2,167 in 1872 ; it therefore increased by 41 square miles, or 1·8 per cent., in the

first twelve years, and decreased by 55, or 2·5 per cent., in the latter seven years, or by 14, or 1·6 per cent., on the whole, or .03 per annum on the whole nineteen years.

Population.—The total population was 1,596,324 in 1853, 1,342,455 in 1865, 1,345,570 in 1872: it therefore decreased by 253,869, or 18·9 per cent., from 1853 to 1865; it increased by 3,115, or 2 per cent., from 1865 to 1872; while in the whole nineteen years from 1853 to 1872 the decrease was 250,754, or 18·6 per cent. The annual rate of decrease in the first period was 1·5, and the increase in the second period 2 per cent., while the decrease on the whole nineteen years was .9 per annum.

Sex.—There were of males in 1853, 828,773; in 1865, 707,050; and in 1872, 696,572. They therefore decreased in the first period by 121,723, or 17·2 per cent., and in the second period by 10,478, or 1·5 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 132,201, or 18·9 per cent.

There were of females in 1853, 767,551; in 1865, 685,405; and in 1872, 648,829. They therefore decreased in the first period by 132,146, or 20·8 per cent., and increased in the second by 13,424, or 1·9 per cent., while in the whole nineteen years the decrease was 118,722, or 18·3 per cent.

The proportion of males to females was—

1·07 to 1 in 1853.

1·11 „ 1 „ 1865.

1·07 „ 1 „ 1872.

The proportion of males therefore increased a little in the first period, and then returned to its original amount.

The males decreased by 17·2 per cent. in the first period, and in the second period by 1·5, or 18·9 per cent. on the whole. The females decreased by 20·8 per cent. in the first period, and increased in the second by 1·9 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years decreased by 18·3 per cent. The females therefore decreased 3 per cent. quicker than the males in the first period, while they increased 2 per cent. in the second period, during which the males decreased 1½ per cent., so that in the whole nineteen years the two sexes decreased just about equally.

The annual rates were—

	<i>Decrease per cent.</i>		<i>Increase per cent.</i>	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
	...	1·4	1·7	...
In first period	...	1·4	1·7	...
In second period27
In whole period9	.9	...

12. *Religion.*—There were of Hindús in 1853, 1,438,085; in 1865, 1,214,414; and in 1872, 1,221,810: they therefore decreased in the first period by 223,671, or 18·4 per cent., and increased in the second by 7,396, or '6 per cent. The decrease in the whole nineteen years was 216,275, or 17·7 per cent.

There were of Musalmáns in 1853, 158,239; in 1865, 127,820; and in 1872, 123,455: they therefore decreased in the first period by 30,419, or 23·8 per cent., and in the second period by 4,365, or 3·5 per cent., and in the whole period of nineteen years by 34,784, or 28·1 per cent.

The proportion of Hindús to Musalmáns was—

9·02 to 1 in 1853.

9·50 „ 1 „ 1865.

9·89 „ 1 „ 1872.

The proportion of Hindús therefore steadily increased throughout both periods, and is now roughly 10 to 1 Musalmán.

The Hindús decreased in the first period by 18·4 per cent., and increased in the second period by '6 per cent., and decreased in the whole period by 17·7 per cent. The Musalmáns decreased in the first period by 23·8 per cent., and in the second period by 3·5 per cent., and in the whole period of nineteen years by 28·1 per cent. So that the Musalmáns decreased 5 per cent. faster than the Hindús in the first period, and decreased $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in the second, when the Hindús increased half per cent., so that on the whole the Musalmáns decreased 10 per cent. more than the Hindús.

The annual rates were—

	<i>Decrease per cent.</i>		<i>Increase per cent.</i>	
	Hindús.	Musalmáns.	Hindús.	Musalmáns.
In the first period	... 1·5	1·9	... '8	...
In the second period	... '9	'5	... '8	...
In the whole period	... '9	1·4	... '9	...

13. *Land revenue.*—In 1853 the land revenue was Rs. 15,00,426, in 1865 Rs. 15,14,084, in 1872 Rs. 15,04,446: it therefore increased by Rs. 13,658, or '9 per cent., during the first period, and decreased by Rs. 9,638, or '6 per cent., during the second period, while the total increase on the whole nineteen years was Rs. 4,020, or '3 per cent. The increase was therefore '07 per cent. per annum from 1853 to 1865, '08 per cent. per annum from 1865 to 1872, and 1 per cent.

per annum from 1853 to 1872. The revenue in this district was therefore, as in Benares, very stationary, only varying 3 per cent. in the whole nineteen years.

Number of mauzas.—This was 5,088 in 1853, 5,133 in 1865, and 3,725 in 1872. The mauzas therefore increased by 45, or 9 per cent., from 1853 to 1865, and diminished by 1,408, or 37·7 per cent., from 1865 to 1872, the total diminution in number in the whole nineteen years being 1,363, or 36·5 per cent., or 1·9 per cent. per annum. This very considerable difference of a third of the whole number can only be accounted for by some difference in the mode of enumeration, as it is impossible to suppose that an old and thickly-settled district like Gházipur could have lost 1,400 mauzas in nineteen years, and though some of these may have been transferred to Azamgarh or the neighbouring Bengal districts, a large proportion is left quite unaccounted for.

Persons per square mile.—In 1853 there were 732 persons per square mile, 604 in 1865, and 621 in 1872 : the density of population therefore decreased by 128 in the first period of twelve years, or by 21·2 per cent., or 1·7 per cent. per annum ; it increased by 17 during the second period of seven years, or by 2·8 per cent., or 4 per cent. per annum, and it decreased by 111, or 17·7 per cent., or 9 per cent., per annum in the whole period of nineteen years. The decrease in density was therefore much greater in this district than in the first three in this division, being nearly twice as much as in Azamgarh, and as the average of the Jhánsi division, and nearly six times as much as the average of the Allahabad division.

14. *Town and village population.*—There are 15 towns in the district which have a population of more than 5,000, and these contain a total of 139,768 inhabitants, so that 10·3 per cent. of the population of the district may be said to live in towns.

Out of the 3,725 inhabited places in the district, 2,018, or more than half, contained less than 200 inhabitants ; and 3,010, or four-fifths, contained less than 500 inhabitants.

There are no walled or fortified places in the district. The houses are generally built of mud, but in towns they are often constructed of burnt brick.

Nearly all village sites on the lowland formation are artificially raised, as the greater part of the lowland country is liable to submersion in a high flood. An unfortunate result of this is that the villages in the lowlands are surrounded, and sometimes penetrated, by a series of irregular pits, and tanks in which during the rainy season people are often drowned, and which, when it terminates, become receptacles for filth, and fertile sources of malaria and disease.¹

¹ Oldham, Memoir of Gházipur, p. 8, Vol. I.

15. *Value of house and furniture.*—The cost of building a house of the best class may be considered to be from £200 upwards, of the 2nd class from £15 to £150, and of the third class from £1 to £10.

A trader's house of the better class contains generally about £50 worth of furniture and utensils of all kinds. Bedsteads, mattresses, quilts, carpets, and boxes would represent about £30 worth of this, and cooking vessels the remainder.

A well-to-do cultivator owns a few strong boxes and bedsteads and quilts worth about £10, besides cooking vessels worth £5 or £6.

An artizan in middling circumstances possesses one or two bedsteads and quilts and some drinking vessels, worth altogether about £3.

A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars, one or two quilts, and perhaps a cot, worth in all 10 shillings to a pound.

The mass of the agricultural population is of course contented with a very moderate amount of comfort in their house and furniture, but in the large towns (above 5,000), which are unusually numerous in this district, the wealthier inhabitants have a considerably higher standard; the houses are built of brick, and well timbered and fitted, and the little furniture which a native of Hindustán requires is of a better and more substantial description.

16. *Trades-unions.*—As in other districts, there are no organized trades-unions in the English sense of the word, but the powerful caste pancháyats answer very much the same purpose, though they have a much wider field of action than an English trades-union has. Goldsmiths, grain dealers, cloth merchants, and other traders have guilds which regulate their trade customs.

Just as in the districts of the Doáb, the pancháyats are the instruments for deciding all disputes relating to the social arrangements of classes or castes, to petty debts, or to the occupancy of lands for cultivation, and all questions of a domestic nature. They have authority to inflict fines, and to decide when a person is to be put out of caste or to be re-admitted.

They are not strictly trade combinations, but from the fact of persons of one trade being so often of one caste, they really come to answer that purpose in most cases.

17. *Village communities.*—The villages in this district, as in nearly all in the North-West, may be classified into three kinds, according to the modes in which the land is held and the Government revenue paid:—

Zamindári.—Where the whole of the land belongs to several owners in joint occupation, one (or more) of the owners is usually selected by the rest to manage the estate and to collect the Government revenue and pay it in to

Government; in these villages there are no pattiis or separate shares of land marked off from the rest, but each proprietor owns a defined proportion of the total produce of the estate.

Imperfect pattidari.—Where the village is partly held by several owners in joint occupation, and partly by several owners in severalty or separate occupation. Here the tenure is partly of the first class and partly of the third class, and each portion is managed as if it were a separate estate belonging to that class.

Pattidari.—Where the land has been completely divided among the sharers, and is held by several owners in severalty, but under one tenure as regards the Government. Here the lands and homesteads are entirely divided off to each owner, but the whole estate remains liable for the Government revenue or any part of it.

There is also a fourth kind of estate called bhaiachára, where, though it belongs to the second or third class, the rights and interest of each co-sharer are not determined by his ancestral share, but by custom or possession. In all these classes of estates the settlement of the revenue to be paid to Government is a joint settlement, *i.e.*, all the co-sharers are responsible for the fulfilment of the contract, and all the co-sharers, jointly and severally, and the entire estate are responsible for the whole revenue.

At the settlement of the Gházipur district, made in 1789, and subsequently declared permanent, in the great majority of cases fraternities or brotherhoods belonging to various Hindú and Muhammadan tribes were recognized by Government as the owners of the soil.

The settlements were concluded with a few headmen in each estate, who were the representatives of the whole community. In some cases, by accident rather than by design, the headman of a proprietary community was treated as sole owner. In no case was the existence of any divided ownership, *i.e.*, of superior and inferior proprietary right, admitted; there were therefore no taluká-dárs, though there were immense talukás (single estates) held by brotherhoods of shareholders. No detailed record of the extent of ownership of the various shareholders was attempted till 1840, and no man knew exactly what land he owned or what revenue he had to pay. Estates were constantly sold for arrears of revenue, and fraudulently bought in at low prices by the native officials. These have now become the landholders, and are in a constant state of warfare and litigation with the old landowners, who still live on and cultivate the fields which were once their own.

18. *Condition of the people*.—Among the Hindús of the district the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would

be approximately—(1) for those in the 1st class, or having incomes over £100 a year, £90 to £180 ; (2) for those in the 2nd class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 a year, about £16 to £60 ; and (3) for those in the 3rd class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns it would be rather more, as their habits are somewhat more expensive.

The district is rich, and in the eastern parts the soil is extremely fertile, and the cultivators are well-to-do, and consequently extremely litigious. In the Saiadpur tāhsíl the Government revenue assessment is heavier than in other parts of the district, and the cultivators are poor. The soil too is much inferior to that of Ballia. In these poorer parts of the district the peasantry are generally in debt; but in the richer parts, where they mostly have rights of occupancy, they are well off, and are the most turbulent and quarrelsome race in the North-Western Provinces. The district is permanently assessed, and both landowners and cultivators are therefore richer and more independent than in the western districts.

19. *Character of the soil.*—In all the Gangetic lowland of the district the upper surface of a well-raised tract is invariably earth, but a few feet below the surface sand is always met with. The rivers which have had the longest course from the hills deposit mud; the others sand: the Ganges deposits alternate mud and sand; the Ghogra and the Sarjú deposit sand, and a flood from them therefore does harm to the crops, while one from the Ganges does good.

The black soil called *kharil*, resembling the *már* of Bundelkhand, is common in all the lowlands and in the uplands south of the Ganges. It contains much alumina, and is with difficulty traversed during the rains; when it dries up, it splits into innumerable cracks and fissures; it produces a good spring crop without irrigation, but its character is much improved if sand is spread over it when irrigation becomes possible. The newly formed sandy deposits near the Ganges generally produce only thatching grass, but when a layer of clay exists beneath, melons are cultivated on it and grow to great perfection.

The upland tracts of the district are generally fertile, but without irrigation or winter rain they will not produce a spring crop. In the lowland fluvial deposits there is no kankar, no reh (*saltpetre*), and, except in very recent formations, little sand at the surface.

20. *Course of tillage.*—There are two harvests, the *kharif* or autumn one, and the *rabbi* or spring one. The *kharif* crops are sown in June, directly the first rain falls, and are harvested in October and November, and some of the rice in September, or even as early as the end of August, but cotton is not

ripe for picking till February. Besides cotton and rice they include bajra, jowar, mot, &c. The rabbi crops are sown in October and November, and reaped in March and April; they consist of corn, barley, oats, vetch and peas, and dál or arhar. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both crops; land is allowed to lie fallow whenever the cultivator can afford it. and, as a rule, spring and autumn crops are not taken off the same land, but sometimes a crop of rice is taken in the autumn, and another crop of some kind in the spring. If rain is delayed beyond the 20th of June it keeps back the sowing and endangers the yield of the early autumn crops which ripen in September. During the whole of August continuous and heavy rain is expected and desired, but in September the crops require more sunshine than rain. The early autumn crops are then harvested, the ploughing of the land for the spring crops commences, and if one more heavy fall of rain occurs at the end of September, it does immense good. During the second and third weeks of October the sowing of the spring crops goes on uninterruptedly, and a fall of rain after this is liable to injure the sowings.

21. *Years of scarcity.*—The district is not specially subject to floods, droughts, or blights, and there has been no great famine in it during the present century. It has ample means of external communication in the rivers Ganges, Ghogra, and Guinti, and the East Indian Railway. Much of the Ballia subdivision, particularly in parganah Doabah, is annually submerged, and if autumn crops have been sown on any part of it, they are of course lost in the floods. In 1783 severe scarcity occurred from the failure of the rains in 1782, but there were no deaths from famine as far as is known. In 1803 the rice crop was destroyed and the spring crops endangered, but they escaped. In 1837-38 there was again a scarcity, but no actual famine and no deaths. There were also partial droughts in 1859-60, 1864-65, and 1865-66, and floods in 1871-72.

The last scarcity was in 1868-69, when only 21 inches of rain fell in twelve months. The greater part of the autumn and about half the spring crop were lost, and the distress was severe. Relief operations continued from June to September, 1869, but no actual deaths from famine occurred.

22. *Communications and trade.*—The portion of Gházipur lying south of the Ganges is traversed by the East Indian Railway for a length of 24 miles, and in that distance are three stations—Zamániah, Dildarnagar, and Galmar—which are distant respectively $13\frac{1}{2}$, 12, and $14\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the town of Gházipur.

Three stations in Sháhabad district, Lower Provinces, are also situated within easy distances from portions of Gházipur. Baksar station (Buxar) is

only a mile from Korantadih, Domraon is 10 miles from Ballia, and Bihia is 10 miles from Lalganj in Doábah; Gahmar and Dildarnagar stations are connected with Gházipur by unmetalled roads. Zamániah, connected with Gházipur by a metalled road, which continues 5 miles further south to the Grand Trunk Road, is the principal station in the district, and the outlet for most of the traffic of Gházipur, Azamgarh, and Gorakhpur districts. At present, however, the greater portion of the commerce of the district is conveyed by the Ganges. A light railway is about to be made from Zamániah to Gházipur.

The metalled roads of the district are as follows :—

I. The Zamániah road, already mentioned, from the ghát opposite Gházipur to Zamániah railway station, and thence on to the Grand Trunk Road.

II. The Gorakhpur road from Gházipur to Gorakhpur 82 miles, of which 21 are in this district and the rest in Azamgarh and Gorakhpur.

III. The Azamgarh road, which branches off from the Gorakhpur road at Birno. Total length from Gházipur to Azamgarh 42 miles, of which 21 are in this district.

IV. The Benares road from Gházipur to Benares, 45 miles due west, as far as the Gumti, and thence south-west to Benares. Of this road $25\frac{1}{2}$ miles are in this district.

V. The Korantadih and Baksar (Buxar) road, 26 miles to the Kotwa Ghát at Korantadih, opposite Baksar.

Of these the first three are great routes of traffic, as connecting the three districts of Gházipur, Azamgarh, and Gorakhpur with the East Indian Railway.

The unmetalled roads are—

I. The Gházipur and Ballia direct road, 42 miles, of which 12 miles to Mohamdbabad coincide with the Baksar road. This road passes by Lathudih and Baragaon, and crosses the Sarjú by ferry at Phepná.

II. The Gházipur, Rasra, and Ballia road—Gházipur to Rasra 33 miles, Rasra to Ballia 20 miles. This leaves the Baksar metalled road at the 5th milestone.

III. The Ballia and Revilganj road, 25 miles in a direction nearly due east, *via* Bairia in the Doaba to the ghát on the Ghogra at Revilganj. This connects Ballia with Chapra in the Lower Provinces.

IV. The Ballia Manir and Sikandarpur road to Manir, 18 miles. This takes a curved northerly direction *via* Bansdih to Manir on the Ghogra, and thence to Sikandarpur in the Azamgarh district.

Trade.—One of the chief branches of industry in the district is the manufacture of opium, the headquarters of the Government opium department for

the North-Western Provinces being at Gházipur. Opium has been cultivated in India since the 16th century, and when the English first acquired the Benares province they farmed the monopoly of opium to contractors. In 1797 an opium agent was appointed for Benares, but natives still managed the manufacture, and were paid by commission. In 1852 Lord Dalhousie introduced the present system. There are ten deputies under the agent, and each of these has one or two European assistants. These ten divisions are subdivided into 39 kothis or offices, each supervised by a native gomáshta. Licenses are granted to the cultivators and advances made to them, and in return they engage to place a certain amount of land under opium. After the fields are sown they are measured carefully and estimates made of the quantity of opium which each cultivator ought to produce. In March and April the opium is cultivated and brought to the factory, where its consistence is tested, and it is weighed, before the cultivator is paid for it. The amount disbursed in wages, &c., at the Gházipur factory is £10,125 per annum. The opium is classified according to its consistence : all containing 70 per cent. of pure dry opium is ranked as 1st class, and paid for at the rate of 4s. 6d. a pound. The opium is then made up into special balls weighing rather more than 2lbs. each : these are packed in boxes containing 40 balls each, and are then despatched to Calcutta for sale by auction.

The chief imports into the district are English piece-goods and thread, cotton, salt, spices, and grain ; and the chief exports from it are country cloth, sugar, sajji (fullers-earth), oil-seeds, and hides.

23. *Money-lending, wages, and prices.*—The rates of interest at present (1877) charged in the district are as follows :—

- (a.) In small transactions, when articles are pawned, from 12 to 15 per cent.
- (b.) In small transactions, when personal security is given, from 18 to 37 per cent.
- (c.) In large transactions, when jewels, &c., are pledged, from 6 to 12 per cent.
- (d.) When bankers lend money to bankers on personal security, 6 to 9 per cent.
- (e.) When land is mortgaged, from 9 to 18 per cent.

The rates of wages are as follows :—

- (a.) Coolies and unskilled town labourers, $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ pence a day.
- (b.) Agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 pence a day.
- (c.) Bricklayers and carpenters, 6 pence to 2 shillings a day.

Female labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men.

Boys of from 12 to 16 get two-thirds of the wages of full-grown men; boys younger than that and girls from one-half to one-third.

Agricultural labourers are generally paid in kind. In the ploughing season they receive $1\frac{1}{2}$ seer of some cheap grain daily and some gur (sugar). At harvest time men and women alike receive 2 to 4 seers of the grain gathered. In villages all labour is generally paid daily, either in money or kind, and monthly wages are rare. The average cost of the daily food of an able-bodied labourer is about $1\frac{1}{2}d$.

The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were as follows:—

	Number of seers (2lbs.) for a rupee (2s.)			
	1st April.	1st August.	1st December.	Average.
Wheat	...	24	21	21
Rice	...	8	9	8
Jowár	...	34	18	29
Bajra	...	32	24	28
Dál	...	20	20	21

24. *History.*—The popular traditions of the district ascribe the foundation of Gházipur to a mythical Rájá Gádh, after whom the city was named Gádhipur, but the name is really of Musalmán origin. The city was founded in 1330 A.D. during the reign of Muhammad Toghak by a distinguished Saiyad chief named Masaud, who slew the local Hindú Rájá in battle. The king conferred the estates of the vanquished on the victor and gave him the title of Malik-us-Saadat Gházi, or chief of the Saiyads and defender of the faith, and from his latter title he named his new city.

A great local holiday and festivity is still held in Gházipur in his honour in the month of May. The district did not escape the commotions which disturbed the whole country previous to the commencement of British rule, but there is no event worthy of special notice till the year 1738, when Saadat Khan, viceroy of Oúdh, appointed Shekh Abdulla to be governor of Gházipur. He had been in various posts under the governor of Patna, but had been compelled to flee for his life, and had taken refuge with Saadat Khan.

Abdulla built at Gházipur the palace of the 40 pillars, now in ruins, and a masonry tank and enclosed garden now called the Nawáb's bagh. He died in 1744 and was buried near his garden. His son Fazl Ali succeeded him, but the former, after various vicissitudes, was expelled by Balwant Singh, the Rájá

of Benares, in 1761. In 1770 Balwant Singh was succeeded by his son Chait Singh, who in 1781 rebelled against the English and was deposed by Warren Hastings (see "Benares"). All the districts belonging to him, and among them Gházipur, had already passed into British hands in 1775, when the Benares province was ceded to the British by the Vazir of Oudh. The district had therefore been 600 years in the possession of the Musalmáns, as it first passed to them when Kutb-ud-din Aibak, the commander-in-chief of Muhammad Ghori, the first Musalmán king of Dehli, defeated Jai Chand Rai, the Rahtor Rájá of Kanauj and Benares, near Etáwah in 1193. But little is known of what occurred in the district during this long interval. Farishta does not mention Gházipur till the reign of Ibrahim Lodi, who was conquered by Bábar in 1526: so that for 350 years out of the 600 of Musalmán rule absolutely nothing is known. Bábar himself frequently mentions Gházipur in his autobiography.

From 1394 to 1476 Gházipur formed part of the Sharki kingdom of Jaunpur, till its overthrow by the Afghan king Bailol Lodi. When Bábar had overthrown the Lodi or Afghan dynasty he marched to Gházipur and defeated the remaining rebel Afghans near Ballia in 1529; but in 1539 Sher Khán, the head of the Bábar Afghans won it back from Humaiun and held it for 20 years till 1559, when it was re-conquered by Khan Zamán, Akbar's governor of Jaunpur. In 1564 Khan Zamán rebelled against Akbar, and was finally killed by him at Karrah in 1566; the Gházipur district then became thoroughly incorporated with the Moghal kingdom, and remained so till the Vazirs of Oudh became semi-independent about the middle of the 18th century, when, as above stated, it passed into the hands of the Rájás of Benares.

From 1775, when it was ceded to the English, till 1857 no disturbances or change of Government took place, and there is therefore little to say about that period. In 1789 the first settlement of the land revenue was made, and it was subsequently declared permanent, but no detailed records were made till 1840. In 1805 Lord Cornwallis died at Gházipur, and a monument to him was erected there.

In 1857 everything remained quiet till the mutiny at Azamgarh became known on June 3rd: the fugitives from Azamgarh arrived on that day and the district at once rose. The 65th Native Infantry, however, remained staunch, and 100 Europeans on their way to Benares were detained, so that order was tolerably re-established by the 16th June. Things remained quiet till the news of the Dinapur mutiny arrived on the 27th July, when the 65th stated their intention of joining Kuar Singh's force; but after the defeat of the latter at

Arrah the 65th were quietly disarmed, and some European troops were stationed at Gházipur, so that no more disturbances occurred till the siege of Azamgarh was raised in April, when the rebels came flying down the Ghogra and across the Ganges to Arrah. The eastern half of the district then rose in rebellion again, and by the end of June was utterly disorganized. In July, 1858, a force was sent to Ballia which drove the rebels out of the Doabah, and another column cleared all the parganahs north of the Ganges. The parganahs south of the Ganges remained in rebellion till the end of October, when a force was sent across which expelled the rebels and completely restored order.

25. Administration.—Gházipur is in the commissionership of Benares, and is the most easterly of the districts in that division. It is the seat of a civil and sessions judge, who has no other district under him.

(a.) *Criminal and Revenue.*—The ordinary staff of the district consists of a magistrate and collector, two joint magistrates (one at Ballia), one assistant magistrate, and two deputy magistrates and collectors. There are six tahsildars or sub-magistrates and sub-collectors, and nine special magistrates with local powers. The two deputy collectors, the six sub-magistrates, and all the special magistrates but two are natives, the rest are Europeans.

The magistrate, joint magistrates, and one deputy magistrate have 1st class powers, the assistant magistrate and the other deputy magistrates either 1st or 2nd class powers, and the sub-magistrates and special magistrates either 2nd or 3rd class powers. There are also an opium agent, with a principal assistant, a sub-deputy, and four assistants; an inspector of customs, a district superintendent of police, and a civil surgeon, who all have magisterial powers to some extent.

(b.) *Civil.*—The civil judge has under him two sub-judges and five munsifs or primary civil courts at Gházipur, Ballia, Rasra, Saidpur, and Muhammadabad.

In 1875 the total cost to the State of these civil courts was £7,993, and the amount realized by stamps and court fees £9,150. The number of cases decided by each class of courts was—

Civil courts	5,376
Criminal courts	2,441
Revenue courts	3,882

The average value of property under litigation was £13.

(c.) *Police.*—In the year 1876 the total strength of the district regular police force was 526. This number consisted of 1 district superintendent, 6 inspectors, 100 officers subordinate to inspectors, 15 mounted constables, and 404

foot constables. The cost of maintaining this force was £7,576. The total strength of the police of the Jaunpur district is one man to every 4·1 square miles, as compared with the area, and one man to every 2,557 persons, as compared with the population. The cost of maintenance is equal to £3-10 per square mile, or 1½ pence per head of the population.

(d.) *Jails*.—There are a district jail and a magistrate's lock-up at Gházipur, besides the ordinary police and tâhsili lock-ups.

(1.) The district jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 530 prisoners, of whom 490 were male and 40 female. It is under the charge of the civil surgeon, who has under him a jailor and 41 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 36-7-0.

The average outturn of labour was Rs. 10.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 2,603.

The rate of mortality was 1·03 per cent. of average strength.

(2.) The lock-up contained in 1875 a daily average of 49 under-trial prisoners, of whom 46 were males and 3 females.

(e.) *Postal and Telegraph*.—There are 21 imperial and 7 local post-offices in the district, and in 1876 there were 40 letters per head of the population and 33·84 per educated man.

There are three telegraph offices in the district, at the three stations of Zamániah, Dildárñagar, and Ghamar, on the East Indian Railway.

26. *Revenue and Finance*.—The district local funds amounted in 1875 to £18,500, and the expenditure to £17,000.

There are two municipalities in the district : of these the receipts and expenditure were as follows in 1876 :—

Municipality.	Receipts.	Expenditure	Incidence of taxation
			per head.
	£	£	Rs. a. p.
Gházipur ...	2,950	2,800	0 11 9
Ballia ...	630	600	0 10 9

The whole amount of revenue raised in the district, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, in 1876 was £200,000, or on a population of 1,399,217¹ an incidence per head of 2·9 shillings: out of this £58,000, or 29 per cent. of the total receipts, was returned to the district in payment for its administration.

¹ Corrected to 1876.

27. *Medical Statistics.*—There are seven dispensaries in the district, at Gházipur, Ballia, Saiadpur, Rasra, and Pirnagar. During the year 1876, 75,085 persons were treated in these dispensaries, of whom 947 were in-door and 74,138 out door patients. The total receipts were £800, and the charges for establishment £361.

The total number of deaths in the year 1875 was 21,566, or 18·25 per 1,000 of the population. The mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 for the previous six years was 16·56, and the total number of deaths in the six years preceding 1876 was 150,152 persons.

There were 16,963 persons vaccinated in 1876.

28. *Education.*—There were 240 schools in the district in 1875 with 7,824 scholars, which gives an average area of 9·02 square miles for each school, and a percentage of ·58 scholars on the total population.

There were seven female schools.

The total cost of these schools was £3,892, of which £1,198 was paid from provincial and £2,694 from local sources.

29. *Fairs and Chief Towns.*—The chief towns with a population above 5,000 are—

(1.) Gházipur, the chief town of the district, on the north bank of the Ganges, 64 miles north-east of Benares. Population 38,853, area 416 square acres, municipal income £4,124. It has a trade in sugar, tobacco, coarse longcloth, and rose water, and is the seat of the Government opium factory, where all opium from the north-west is collected and manufactured.

(2.) Mahatwar Khás, in parganah Kharid, on the road leading to Bairia *via* Bansdih. It is 46 miles north-east of Gházipur and 12 miles north-east of Ballia. Population 8,975, area 135. This town is about 6 miles east of the great lake, the Tal Suráhá.

(3.) Shiupur Diar, in parganah Ballia, on the banks of the Ganges. It is 40 miles east of Gházipur and 4 miles east of Ballia. Population 9,279.

(4.) Gahmar, in parganah Zamániah, one mile south of the Ganges. There is a station on the East Indian Railway here. Population 9,050, area 108 square acres. It is 15 miles south-east of Gházipur.

(5.) Sherpur, in parganah Zamániah. Population 7,958, area 110 square acres.

(6.) Riotipur, in parganah Zamániah, 1 mile south of the southern branch of the Ganges and 8 miles east of Gházipur. Population 9,323, area 211 square acres.

(7.) Bárá, in parganah Zamániah. Population 5,424, area 139 square acres.

(8.) Chít, in parganah Kopáchit, 30 miles north-east of Gházipur and 6 miles north of the Ganges. Population 5,821, area 53 square miles.

(9.) Narhi, in parganah Garah, 30 miles east of Gházipur and 2 miles north of the Ganges. Population 5,527, area 74 square miles.

(10.) Bansdih, in parganah Kharid, 2 miles north-east of the Suráhá lake and 8 miles south of the Ghogra. Population 7,319, area 150 square acres.

(11.) Rioti, in parganah Kharid, 16 miles north-east of Ballia and 6 miles south of the Ghogra. Population 7,700, area 126 square acres.

(12.) Maniar, in parganah Kharid. Population 5,285, area 73 square acres.

(13.) Ballia, chief town of the subdivision, on the north bank of the Ganges, 36 miles north-east of Gházipur, is a municipality with an income of £600 a year, a population of 8,521, and an area of 106 square acres.

(14.) Bairia, in parganah Ballia. Population 5,589, area 44 square acres.

(15.) Sonbarsa, in parganah Ballia, 10 miles north-east of Ballia. Population 7,162, area 106 square acres.

(16.) Rasra, in parganah Laknesar, the chief town of the Rasra tahsil. It is 28 miles north-east of Gházipur and 22 miles north-west of Ballia. It has a trade in spices, cloth, and sugar. Population 7,261, area 176 square acres.

Fairs.—There are two principal fairs.

(1.) The first at Ballia, called Dádri, held in the month of October at the full moon of Kartik. It is a great bathing fair, and about 50,000 people attend it.

(2.) The second held at Chochakpur, and called Manni Gosain. This is at the same time as the former one, and about 10,000 people attend it.

30. *Archæology.*—The chief remains of archæological interest in the district are the following :—

(1.) At Bhitrí, 5 miles north-east of Saiadpur, there is a sandstone monolith 28' 2" high, of which 5 or 6 feet are below the surface of the ground.

It bears an inscription recording the achievements of five kings of the Gupta dynasty, and is of date about 450 A.D. There are also a stone bridge of three arches built by the Muhammadans out of stones from Hindú structures, and numerous sculptures and carved monolith pillars about 7 feet long.

(2.) At Saiadpur, on the Ganges, about 30 miles west of Gházipur, there are numerous carved stone sculptures of very ancient date, and a flat-roofed, richly carved, massive stone edifice, probably of Hindú or Buddhist origin.

(3.) At Lathia, 1 mile south-east of Zamániyah, a very ancient monolith column 26 feet high above the ground and several feet below it. It has a richly carved capital, and two female figures (busts), which now lie at the base, originally surmounted it.

(4.) At Hetimpur, parganah Mahaich, 6 miles south of the Ganges, on the old Benares road, a fine fort built by Hetim Khán, an Afghán officer, in the time of Aurangzeb. There is a house in good preservation inside, evidently built at the same time.

(5.) At Bhimápar, in Bahariabad, a very handsome bridge of 12 arches over the river Gangi, built by Beni Ram Pandit, the banker and friend of Warren Hastings, 90 years ago.

(6.) At Gházipur itself is the monument to Lord Cornwallis, a domed Grecian building of Doric order and containing a marble monument of him by Flaxman.

There are also the tomb of Malik-ul-Saadat, who founded Gházipur about 1330 A.D., and the tombs of Abdulla and Fazl Ali, a tank and two imambáras. The tank was built about 1739 by Nawáb Shekh Abdulla, who was governor of Gházipur under the Nawáb Vazír of Oudh. The second tomb is that of Fazl Ali Khán, who was Abdulla's successor, but was displaced in 1758, and the district given to Rájá Balwant Singh.

G O R A K H P U R.

GORAKHPUR.

A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. Position and area.—The district of Gorakhpur—bounded on the north by the territory of Nipál, on the south by the district of Azamgarh, on the east by the Bengal districts of Champáran and Sáran, and on the west by the district of Basti and by a small portion of the Oudh district of Faizábád—lies between north latitude $26^{\circ} 7' 45''$ and $27^{\circ} 29' 15''$, and east longitude $83^{\circ} 8' 0''$ and $84^{\circ} 32' 30''$, and contains an area of 4,578 square miles, and a population of 2,019,361 persons, or 441 to the square mile.

2. Sub-divisions.—The district is divided into 6 tahsílis or sub-collectorates and 12 parganahs, as follows, from north to south :—

Tahsíli.	Parganah.	Area.		Revenue, 1878.
		Sq. miles.	£	
1. Mahárájganj	1. Banaikpur East	144	1,703	
	2. Tilpur	290	4,734	
	3. Haveli North	1,424	20,672	
2. Padrauna	Sidhuá Jobna	932	33,792	
	1. Maghar (2)	115	6,295	
3. Gorakhpur	2. Bhauapár (2)	...	2,617	
	3. South Haveli (2)	...	17,405	
	1. Silhat	...	11,574	
4. Hátá	2. Sháhjahánpur	280	7,845	
	3. Haveli South-east	138	8,725	
	4. Anola	142	4,372	
	1. Dhuriapar	111	11,283	
5. Bansgáon	2. Chilupur	318	4,207	
	3. Bhauapár	106	3,232	
	1. Salempur Majhauli	586	29,670	
		Total ...		£168,071

3. Physical geography.—The district lies immediately south of the lower range of the Himalayas : its maximum breadth is 86 miles, the minimum 47, and the average about 64. The greatest length from north to south is 83, the least 70, and the average 75. Of the total area of 4,578 square miles, 2,700 are under cultivation, 1,000 are culturable but not cultivated, and the rest is barren.

The district is a level plain, the surface of which is broken by nothing higher than a few sand hills in the centre and south-east, and which slope very gently from north-west to south-east.

The surface of this plain is intersected by numerous rivers and streams and dotted over with many a lake and marsh. The water-supply is abundant, and the moisture of the soil gives a verdant appearance to the country which contrasts strongly with that of the districts south of the Ghogra. In the north and centre of the district there are extensive tracts of sál forest : the trees in these are not, as a rule, of any great size, but the density and extent of the forests strikes any one coming from the populous and highly cultivated districts further south.

In the south of the district the general expanse of cultivation is only broken by the mango groves which are dotted about, and the numerous streams and lakes which occur at short intervals. The west and south-west of the district is low-lying and subject to extensive inundations : in seasons of heavy rain the water collects in the valley of the Ami, and joining the lakes to the east forms an immense inland sea. To the east of the Rapti the ground rises slightly, but again sinks towards the south-east and slopes away towards the border of the district.

In the extreme north of the district is the Tarái or lowland, which lies along the foot of the first range of hills ; these latter are about 8 miles beyond the edge of the district, and the snowy range can be clearly seen from the frontier : the country here is submontane in character, the streams are clear and rapid, and large tracts are covered with forest. In these latter are open glades used for pasturing cattle, and the cultivated portion of the land is chiefly devoted to rice. The inhabitants are either hillmen (Gurkhás or Nipális) or Thárus, the aborigines of the Tarái, who alone can live in it during the rains and autumn, when its pestilential climate drives all others away.

In the east especially, north of the centre, the character of the country shows signs of the approach to the hills ; there are undulations and ridges in its surface, and patches of forest which grow more frequent as the northern border is approached.¹

4. *Rivers.*—The chief rivers of the district are—(1) the Rapti, (2) the Ghogra, (3) the Gandak, (4) the little Gandak, (5) the Kuánah, (6) the Rohin, (7) the Ami, (8) the Ghunghi, (9) the Dhamela, (10) the Piyás.

(1.) The Rapti (Rávati) after passing through Oudh and Basti enters this district in parganah Haveli near Mogalha. It flows in a generally south-east direction, but has an exceedingly tortuous course of about 130 miles, till it meets the Ghogra near Rajpur in parganah Salempur. In the rains the stream is a quarter of a mile broad and flows at five miles an hour ; but in the hot weather it shrinks to 150 yards broad, and does not flow at more than two

¹ E. B. Alexander, District Memoir.

miles an hour. The river often cuts away large slices of land and transfers them from one village to another. The Ghunghi, the Dhamela, the Rohin, and the Ami all flow into the Rapti in this district.

There are two bridges of boats on it, at Birdghát and at Bhauapárghát. A large amount of grain and timber is sent down it to the Ghogra, and thence to the Ganges.

(2.) The Ghogra (or Sarju) flows all along the southern border of the district for 66 miles from Majdip in parganah Dhuriápár, where it passes out of the Basti district to Majburua in parganah Salempur Majhaulí, where it enters that of Sáran.

It flows almost due east, slightly inclining to south, and it divides this district from that of Azamgarh throughout. It is a very large river, navigable by steamers during the rains. The Kuánah, the Rapti, and the little Gandak join it in this district. It is never fordable. A very large trade in grain is carried down it from Barhaj and Barhalganj to the Ganges.

(3.) The great Gandak (Naraíani or Salgrámi) rises far away in the Nipál hills, and flowing south-west till it reaches this district, debouches from the hills, when it turns south-east and forms the eastern boundary of the district for about 20 miles ; it then passes into the Champáran district of Lower Bengal for 40 miles, but returns to form the boundary between Gorakhpur and Champáran again for the last 12 miles of their marches. Where it issues from the hills it is a clear and rapid river of great volume, never fordable, full of rapids and whirlpools, and navigable with difficulty on account of its fierce current. Rafts of timber are floated down it from Nipál, and these and the sunken snags in the stream render the boat navigation perilous. Besides wood, grain and sugar are sent down the Gandak to the Ganges, which it joins at Patna. There are ferries at Parsonighát, Madhubani, Gola-Pipraghát, and Básníghát near Parrauna.

(4.) The little Gandak rises in the Nipál hills and enters this district about 8 miles west of the great Gandak ; it then flows parallel with the latter southwards through the district, dividing the parganahs of Haveli and Sháhjahánpur from that of Sidhua Jobna till it reaches the Ghogra at Súnaria, just within the Sáran district. Except in the rains, it is a small stream only 20 yards broad, and fordable in most places. There are Government ferries at Hetampur and Captaininganj.

(5.) The Kuánah rises in Oudh, flows through Basti, and enters this district in parganah Dhuriápár; it is fed by branches from the Ghogra, into which it flows at Narhandiah. The banks are steep, the current slow, and the bed sandy. There is a Government ferry over it at Biuri.

(6.) The Rohin enters this district in parganah Banaikpur East, and passing through parganah Haveli, joins the Rapti below the Domangarh fort, at the west end of the city of Gorakhpur. It is not fordable for 25 miles above Gorakhpur; it is joined by the Piyás some 30 miles above Gorakhpur.

(7.) The Ami rises in a lake in Basti and enters this district at Rámpur, in parganah Maghar. It flows east, and then south-east, and dividing Maghar from Bhauápár, joins the Rapti near Sohgaura in the latter parganah. It is used for irrigation, and is full of fish, being deep and sluggish.

(8.) The Ghunghi rises in the Nipál hills and forms the boundary between Nipál and parganah Benaikpur East, and then between Gorakhpur and Basti. It finally joins the Dhamela at Sikra, and this latter joins the Rapti 10 miles lower down near Mendháwal in Basti.

5. *Lakes.*—There are a great number of these all over the district: the largest are :—

(1.) The Ramgarh Tál in parganah Gorakhpur, east of the city. This is about 2 miles long by $1\frac{1}{2}$ broad, and after the rains is covered with tall reeds: at this time it expands to 5 miles long and 3 broad, and is in parts 40 feet deep, though it is not above 20 feet deep in the hot weather.

(2.) The Nandaur Tál in parganah Bhauápár, tappa Kaswa. This is 6 miles south of Gorakhpur, and near the Benares road; it is about $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles long and half a mile broad, and 25 feet deep in the deepest parts. It is not much affected by the rains, but is always full of very clear water.

(3.) The Nawar Tál in parganah Bhauápár, 4 miles south-west of the city. This is 4 miles long by $1\frac{1}{2}$ broad; it is shallow, and dries up rapidly after the rains are over.

(4.) The Bhenri Tál in parganah Chillupár, tappa Sikandarpur. This in the rains is 5 miles long and 3 or 4 broad, but shrinks to 1 by half a mile in the hot weather. It varies from 10 to 20 feet in depth. In heavy rains this lake sometimes unites the Ghogra with the Rapti, and it is then nearly 8 miles long.

(5.) The Chillua Tál in parganah Gorakhpur, 5 miles north of the city. This is surrounded on three sides by forest. It varies in breadth from 50 yards to half a mile, and is about 8 miles long; it is formed by the Chillua river, which flows into the Rohin, and so communicates with the Rapti.

(6.) The Amiyar Tál in parganah Bhauápár, 10 miles south of the city, is formed by the overflowing of the Ami river; it sinks rapidly after the rains, and the fertilized soil left behind produces splendid crops. It is about 6 miles long by $1\frac{1}{2}$ broad. The Tucker embankment has been constructed across the end of it, and carries the Benares road.

6. *Forests and waste lands.*—There is not very much waste unculturable land in this district. The tract of úsar in parganah Dhuriápár is perhaps the largest. In the north of the district the soil often only bears a rice crop, on account of the extensive inundations which occur ; while from the same cause in the south-west an autumn crop cannot be sown, and only a spring one is cultivated. The forest tracts in the district are still very extensive, and a few years ago were enormous ; but the land on which they grow is generally cultivable, and is sometimes very fertile.

Large grants of this forest land were made, till in 1850 it was found that all the forest would be soon destroyed and timber become scarce : the grants were then stopped, and licenses to cut timber for charcoal were granted by Government. The regular rules for the grant of land were passed in 1862, and very few grants have been made since.

The following amounts have been granted and cultivated :—

Parganah.	Granted.					Cultivated.	
	Square acres.					Square acres.	
Banaikpur	43,915	26,722
Tilpur	16,999	6,197
Haveli	210,984	107,607
Sidhna Jobna	60,024	30,015
Silhat	30,024	23,943
Total	...					362,035	194,484

More than half the entire area granted has therefore been cultivated.

The Government forests are in 18 separate blocks, the total area of which is from 120,000 to 150,000 acres : they are chiefly in Haveli, Banaikpur, and Tilpur. Much of the waste land area, whether private or Government, is not covered with trees, but merely with long grass, especially in Tilpur and Banaikpur.

There are nine main Government forests, of which those of Nagwa and Sonári are the most important ; they yield about £1,000 a year.

These forests do not yield any valuable vegetable production, such as lac, drugs, &c. The Bhars take contracts for collecting the wild honey, and sell it in the neighbouring towns. The trees used to be tapped for their gum, but this has been entirely stopped since the forests passed into the hands of Government.

7. *Geology.*—None of the rocky area of the outer Himalayas is included within the boundaries of this district, so that the whole is an alluvial plain like most of the North-Western districts. It slopes slightly from north-west to south-east, in which direction the rivers all run and the drainage of the country flows. The alluvial deposits are of unknown depth, but, as in the Doáb, there is a thick layer of loam at the top, succeeded by silt and clay, and finally by a sandy water-bed.

As one approaches the hills towards the north of the district, the water is much nearer the surface, and the country assumes the usual aspect of the Tarái.

8. *Climate.*—The district is not subject to very intense heat, its vicinity to the hills and the abundance of moisture in the soil secure it from this. Dust-storms are very rare, and cool breezes from the north follow even short intervals of very hot weather. The climate is, however, relaxing, and there is no bracing cold weather. The south and east of the district, where the jangal has been all cleared, is as healthy as most parts of the North-Western Provinces; but the Tarái along the hills and the forest tracts are still very unhealthy; and during the cold weather fever is very destructive in the north part of Haveli and in Tilpur and Birra; but wherever clearings of a large size have been made and cultivation introduced, the climate has greatly improved. The rains commence about the middle of June, and end in the middle or end of September; there is also almost always some rain about Christmas.

The average rainfall from 1860 to 1871 was 45·8 inches; the maximum was 60 inches in 1861, and the minimum 25 inches in 1868.

The mean monthly temperature in the shade was 77° in 1870 and 76° in 1871; the range was from 61° in January to 90° in June.

9. *Minerals and trees.*—There are no mineral products in the district, as even kankar (nodular limestone) is hardly ever excavated, as it is situated too deeply below the surface to pay for working. Besides the usual trees of Upper India, the district has large forests of sál or sánkhon, which flourishes luxuriantly here. The mango abounds in the southern part of the district, and is often planted in large groves, many of which are said to have been originally laid down by the Banjáras as encamping places.

The muhuwa, the imli, the pipal, the shisham, the bargad, the ním, and the babúl are all common.

10. *Animals and birds.*—The soil is too moist to allow of the use of camels, but all other domestic animals usual in the North-Western Provinces are used. Cattle are often imported from Faizábád and the rest of Oudh, and

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large herds are pastured in the forests and waste lands of the north, but no peculiar breed is used. Of wild animals, the tiger is found in the north, and the jackal, wolf, fox, and wild-boar throughout the district. Deer are very rare.

Wild-fowl of all kinds abound on the larger lakes, which are also full of fish. These latter afford a livelihood to numerous mallahs or boatmen who rent a lake of the landholder and then fish it in concert. Mahásir and rahu are the two best fish caught in the rivers and lakes of this district.

11. *Population, &c.*—In the census of 1872 there were 4,578 square miles in the district, with 7,097 mauzas, 381,237 houses, and a population of 2,019,361. There were 441 persons and 1·5 villages to the square mile, 285 persons per village, and 5·2 persons per house. There were 3,019 masonry houses and 378,218 mud ones. Of the sexes there were 1,078,072 males and 941,278 females.

The numbers of each religion and sex were as follows:—

Hindús	Males	971,385
	Females	848,060
	Total	...	1,819,445	—
				—
Musalmáns	Males	106,403
	Females	92,969
	Total	...	199,372	—
Christians	Males	284
	Females	249
	Total	...	533	—

The percentages of each sex and religion on the total population were as follows:—

Hindús	90.1	—	Males	53.4
Musalmáns	9.9	—	Females	46.6

There were 2·9 persons per cent. above 60 years of age, and 23,509 males able to read and write. The total agricultural population was 1,629,253. The area of assessed land was 4,460 square miles, of which 941 were uncultivable, 897 cultivable, and 2,621 cultivated, and there were besides 25 square miles of uncultivable unassessed land.

The amount of land revenue was £166,522, the rates and cesses on land £16,260, and the incidence of the land revenue per culturable acre was Rs. 0-11-9

The percentage of agricultural on total population was 80·6. The numbers of the chief Hindu castes and Musalmán tribes were as follows :—

	Brahmans 193,270
	Rajputs 76,018
	Banias 58,064
Hindús	Ahirs 242,383
	Chamars 210,108
	Kayaths 22,757
	Kurmis 76,550
	Shekhs 126,835
Musalmáns	Saiads 3,048
	Moghals 611
	Pathans 20,228

The numbers of males above 15 in each of the six great classes of occupations were—

Professional	2,999
Domestic	27,107
Commercial	10,389
Agricultural	535,944
Industrial	33,861
Indefinite	55,437
			Total	... 665,737

There were altogether 7,097 inhabited villages and towns, of which 3,747 contained less than 200 inhabitants ; 2,477 less than 500 ; 648 less than 1,000 ; 184 less than 2,000 ; 22 less than 3,000 ; 12 less than 5,000 ; 6 less than 10,000 ; and 1 above 20,000.

The following figures show the comparative results of the three censuses of 1853, 1865, and 1872 :—

Area.—This was 4,561 square miles in 1853, 4,600 in 1865, and 4,578 in 1872 : it therefore increased by 39 square miles, or '8 per cent., during the first twelve years, and decreased by 22 square miles, or '4 per cent., in the latter seven years, and increased by 17, or '3 per cent., on the whole, or '01 per annum.

Population.—The total population was 1,816,390 in 1853, 2,024,150 in 1865, 2,019,361 in 1872 : it therefore increased by 207,760, or 11·4 per cent., from 1853 to 1865, and decreased by 4,789, or '2 per cent., from 1865 to 1872, and increased by 202,971, or 11·1 per cent., in the whole nineteen years from 1853 to 1872. We therefore find that it increased by '9 per annum in the first period, and decreased by '03 per annum in the second period, or '6 for the whole.

Sex.—There were of males in 1853, 949,990 ; in 1865, 1,068,520 ; and in 1872, 1,078,072 ; they therefore increased in the first period by 118,530, or 12·4 per cent., and in the second period by 9,552, or 8 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 128,082, or 13·4 per cent.

There were of females in 1853, 866,400 ; in 1865, 955,633 ; and in 1872, 941,278 : they therefore increased in the first period by 89,233, or 10·3 per cent., and decreased in the second period by 14,355, or 1·5 per cent., and increased in the whole period by 74,878, or 8·6 per cent.

The proportion of males to females was about—

1·09 to 1 in 1853

1·1 „ 1 „ 1865

1·14 „ 1 „ 1872

The proportions therefore remained the same during the first period, and that of the males slightly increased during the second.

The males increased by 12·4 per cent. in the first period, and in the second period by 8 per cent., and in the whole period of nineteen years by 13·4 per cent. The females increased by 10·3 per cent., and in the second period decreased by 1·5 per cent., and in the whole period by 8·6 per cent. So that during the first period the males increased 2 per cent. quicker than the females, and during the second the males increased by nearly 1 per cent., while the females decreased 1½ per cent., and on the whole the males increased 5 per cent. more quickly than the females.

The annual rates were—

	<i>Decrease per cent.</i>		<i>Increase per cent.</i>	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
	—	—	—	—
In the first period	1·03	·8
In the second period	...	·2	·11	...
In the whole period	..	·4	·7	...

12. *Religion.*—There were of Hindús in 1853, 1,598,100 ; in 1865, 1,779,160 ; in 1872, 1,819,445. They therefore increased in the first period by 181,060, or 11·3 per cent., and in the second by 40,285, or 2·3 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 221,345, or 13·8.

There were of Musalmáns in 1853, 218,280 ; in 1865, 244,060 ; in 1872, 199,372. They therefore increased in the first period by 25,780, or 11·3 per cent., and in the second decreased by 44,688, or 22·4 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years decreased by 18,908, or 9·4 per cent.

The proportion of Hindús to Musalmáns was—

7·32 to 1 in 1853.

7·29 „ 1 „ 1865.

9·12 „ 1 „ 1872.

The proportion of Hindús therefore remained the same during the first period, but increased very considerably during the second period.

The Hindús increased in the first period by 11·3, in the secnd by 2·3, and 13·8 on the whole. The Musalmáns increased in the first period by 11·3, and decreased by 22·4 in the second, and by 9·4 on the whole. So that the two religions increased equally in the first period, and the Hindús increased slightly by 2 per cent. in the second period, while the Musalmáns decreased by eleven times as much, or 22 per cent. On the whole the Hindús increased rather more (13 per cent.) than the Musalmáns decreased (9 per cent.)

The annual rates were—

	Decrease per cent.		Increase per cent.	
	Hindús.	Musalmáns.	Hindús.	Musalmáns.
In the first period	·9	·9
In the second period	3·2	·3	...
In the whole period	·49	·7	...

13. *Land revenue.*—In 1853 the land revenue was Rs. 12,55,240, in 1865 Rs. 16,64,940, in 1872 Rs. 16,65,220 : it therefore increased during the first period by Rs. 4,09,700, or 32·6 per cent., and during the second period by Rs. 280, or ·01 per cent., while the total increase on the whole nineteen years was Rs. 4,09,980, or 32·6 per cent. The increase was therefore 2·8 per cent. per annum from 1853 to 1865, ·001 per cent. per annum from 1865 to 1872, and 1·6 per cent. per annum on the whole period from 1853 to 1872.

Number of mauzas.—In 1853 this was 9,240 ; in 1865, 9260 ; in 1872, 7,097. The mauzas therefore increased by 20, or ·2 per cent., from 1853 to 1865, and decreased by 2,163, or 30·4 per cent., from 1865 to 1872, the total diminution in number in the whole nineteen years being 2,143, or 30·2 per cent., or 1·5 per annum on the whole. In this district again such a wholesale decrease in the number of mauzas as one-third of the whole is quite unintelligible ; it would appear that they were enumerated on totally different principles in the two censuses.

Persons per square mile.—In 1853 there were 398 persons per square mile; in 1865 there were 440 ; in 1872, 441: the density of population therefore increased in the first period of twelve years by 42, or 10·5 per cent.,

or .87 per cent. per annum ; it increased by 1 during the second period of seven years, or by .23 per cent., or .03 per cent. per annum, and increased by .43, or 10.8 per cent., or 56 per cent. per annum, in the whole period of nineteen years.

This is the first district in this division which has shown an increase in density, and the increase is three times greater than that in the Allahabad district, the only district in the Allahabad division which showed an increase ; it is also greater than the average increase in any division except Rohilkhand.

14. *Town and village population.*—There are seven towns with a population of more than 5,000, viz., Gorakhpur, Golah, Gora, Pena, Amua, Padrona, and Rudarpur, which have populations of 51,117, 5,147, 5,482, 5,331, 6,150, 5,092, and 6,538 : so that, with the exception of Gorakhpur, there is no large town in the district, and all the other six towns which have a population of more than 5,000 are under 7,000. The total population of these seven towns is 84,857, which being deducted from the whole population of the district, 2,019,361, leaves 1,934,504 persons to be divided among the small towns and villages.

Out of the total of 7,097 towns and villages, 3,747, or more than half, had less than 200 inhabitants, and 6,224 had less than 500 inhabitants : so that more than six-sevenths of the whole population is scattered about in small villages ; a very different state of things to that which exists in the western districts, where large towns contain a comparatively considerable proportion of the whole population. There are no walled towns or fortified places in the district. In the large towns abovementioned a good many of the houses are built of masonry and the roofs are tiled, but in the country mud walls and wattle or thatched roofs prevail almost exclusively.

15. *Value of house and furniture.*—The cost of building a house of the best class may be considered to be from £200 upwards, of the 2nd class from £15 to £150, and of the 3rd class from £1 to £10.

A trader's house of the better class contains generally about £50 worth of furniture and utensils of all kinds. Bedsteads, quilts, carpets, and boxes would represent about £30 worth of this, and cooking vessels the remainder.

A well-to-do cultivator owns a few strong boxes, bedsteads, and quilts worth about £10, besides cooking vessels worth £5 or £6. An artizan in middling circumstances possesses one or two bedsteads and quilts and some drinking and cooking vessels, worth altogether about £3.

A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars, one or two quilts, and perhaps a cot, worth in all 10 shillings to a pound. These estimates must be always mere approximations, but it should be mentioned that in the south of the district the people are like those of the districts south of the Ghogra, and

have as much furniture and as good houses as persons of the same class have in Gházipur or Azamgarh, but the north of the district is very backward, and there the people possess less furniture, and are satisfied with the rudest houses.

16. *Trades-unions*.—As in other districts, there are no organized trades-unions in the English sense of the word, but the caste pancháyats answer very much the same purpose, though they have a much wider field of action than an English trades-union has. Goldsmiths, grain dealers, cloth merchants, and other trades have guilds which regulate their trade customs, but no form of trades-union is peculiar to, or common in, the district.

17. *Village communities*.—There are villages in this district of each of the three usual kinds—pattidari, imperfect pattidari, and zamindari, besides bhaiachára ones (see “Allahabad”); but the village has never been the same important and clearly separate unit here which it is in the revenue system of other districts. The bond which connected the landholding class was an almost feudal attachment to the Rájá on whom they were dependent, and village communities, in the sense of associations of a number of persons bound together by common proprietorship and residence in the same village, were rare and of little importance. The different dependants and relatives of the Rájás were at first obliged to live with them, in order to be able to defend them at all times, and villages grew up round the fort or house of the Rájá as soon as his following became too large to be accommodated in the latter.

The unit, which is more defined and customary in this district than the village, is the tappa or hundred. They are small divisions of the parganah or county, and appear to have existed before the time of the Muhammadans. In many cases they correspond with natural divisions formed by rivers or by changes in the character of the soil, but very often they appear to be purely artificial sub-divisions, and they probably originally represented the tract made over by a Rújá to some one dependant of his on a quasi-feudal tenure, such as prevailed largely at one time in the district.

In consequence of this peculiarity, the earlier settlements were not made mauzawar (village by village), but taluqawár or tappawár (county by county, or hundred by hundred). The Muhammadan divisions of chaklas (sub-divisions) and sirkars (districts) were never much known in this district, as their revenue system was never thoroughly introduced, and their administration was imperfect and transitory.

18. *Condition of the people*.—Among the Hindús of the district the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the 1st class, or having incomes over £100

a year, £90 to £180 ; (2) for those in the 2nd class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 year, about £16 to £60 ; and (3) for those in the 3rd class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns it would be rather more, as their habits are somewhat more expensive. As has been remarked under the heading "Value of House," there is a great difference between the south and the north of the district.

South of Gorakhpur, and particularly along the Ghogra, the country is densely inhabited, and the people are civilized, fairly well off, and very much like those across that river, but in the northern third of the district forests abound, roads are few and bad, trade, except in timber and the through trade from Nipál, is non-existent, and the people are wilder, poorer, and less like the inhabitants of the Doáb. The density of population, taking the whole district as one, is very great (441 to the square mile), and owing to this the mass of the population is of course very poor, the standard of living and comfort low, and the margin of superfluities to provide against evil times very small. Compared with the misrule and oppression which took place under the Rájás and the Musalmán farmers of taxes, the condition of the people is now vastly improved ; but even at this time it can hardly be considered enviable.

19. *Character of the soil.*—The soils may be divided into—

- (1.) Balua, or sandy, requiring constant irrigation.
- (2.) Dorus or banjar, a dry silicious soil with a larger proportion of sand than clay ; it requires moderate irrigation.

(3.) Mattiár, a clayey soil, containing more clay than sand, and requiring little or no irrigation ; in low-lying tracts it retains too much moisture, and is there inferior to dorus.

(4.) Bhát, a calcareous soil which always retains moisture. It is easily impoverished, and requires to lie fallow at intervals. It requires no irrigation. Of these soils, dorus is the most prevalent in the western part of the district, and bhát in the eastern. In the centre and south-east hillocks of very sandy soil occur among the bhát soil ; these are called dhusi.

(5.) There is also karela (a kind of mattiár), a hard tenacious clay, usually found near jhils, and which can be dug up in large clods or spadefuls like the blue London clay.

20. *Course of tillage.*—There are two harvests, the kharif or autumn one, and the rabi or spring one. The autumn crops are sown in June, directly the first rain falls, and are harvested in October and November, and some of the rice in September, or even as early as the end of August ; but cotton is not ripe for picking till February.

Besides cotton and rice they include bajra, jowar, mot, &c. The spring crops are sown in October and November, and reaped in March and April; they consist of corn, barley, oats, vetch and peas, and dál or arhar. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both crops; and, as a rule, spring and autumn crops are not taken off the same land, but sometimes a crop of rice is taken in the autumn, and another crop of some kind in the spring.

The course of tillage is the same here as in other districts of the North-Western Provinces, but from the heavy and long-continued rain and the flooding of the surface of the country, the sowing of the spring crops is often delayed later than in other districts, and the spring harvest is consequently also later. Much of the land is so long covered with water that it yields no autumn crops at all, and it is at once sown for spring crops as soon as the water clears off it. This flooded land is often exceedingly fertile from the deposits left by the waters as they dry up.

21. *Years of scarcity.*—The famines of 1780 and 1783 did not much affect the districts beyond the Ghogra, but that of 1803 destroyed the rice crop and endangered the spring crops. Rain, however, fell in September, and the trifling balances of revenue show that the famine was never severe. The next great famine was in 1837-38, but it was worst in the Doáb and Bundelkhand, and was never sufficiently felt in Gorakhpur to require remission of the revenue.

The famine of 1860-61 was most severe in the Upper Doáb, but the returns of crime show that it affected Gorakhpur, as thefts and burglaries were twice as numerous as in an ordinary year.

The scarcity in 1873-74 was severely felt in the Gorakhpur and Basti districts, and relief works were set in operation in the spring of 1874; but these were discontinued as soon as the rains commenced.

22. *Communications and trade.*—There are no railroads in the district. The nearest railway stations are Faizábád, 80 miles south-west; Akbarpur, 68 miles south; and Zamaniah, 76 miles south-east.

There are only two metalled roads—

(1.) Gorakhpur to Benares *via* Barhalganj, 36 miles due south in this district.

(2.) Gorakhpur to Basti and Faizábád, 80 miles, of which 15 only lie in this district.

The Tucker band or embankment is on the Benares road, where it crosses the Amiyar and Bigra lakes, 12 miles south of Gorakhpur: it is three miles long, and has four bridges, two of which are very large. The sides of the band

are flanked for a considerable distance with masonry to enable it to withstand the great pressure of the water in the rains. It was built in 1845—50, and cost only £7,000, having been constructed chiefly with convict labour.

There are 910 miles of unmetalled roads, of which 527 are raised and bridged. Of these the most important are those—

- (1.) From Gorakhpur to Lotan and Bútwal, 40 miles due north.
- (2.) From Gorakhpur to Nichláwal *via* Pipraich, 50 miles north-east.
- (3.) Gorakhpur *via* Captainganj and Padrauna to Bettiah, 44 miles in

this district, east-north-east.

(4.) Gorakhpur to Chapra *via* Lárh and Deuria, 60 miles in this district, south-east.

- (5.) Gorakhpur to Kassia *via* Hátá, 32 miles due east.
- (6.) Padrauna to Barhaj, 44 miles due south.

The Nichláwal and Lotan roads are of importance, as on the former a large part of the rice and sugar trade from the north is brought down to Gorakhpur; while the latter connects Captainganj with the Dhani and Rigoli bazars and with Karmaini Ghát. By the Padrauna and Barhaj road a large amount of trade passes down to Barhaj, the great mart of the district. In the north the trade in rice and pepper is very considerable, and that in timber, iron, and copper is large and increasing.

23. *Money-lending, wages, and prices.*—The rates of interest at present (1877) charged in the district are as follows :—

- (a) In small transactions, when articles are pawned, from 12 to 15 per cent.
- (b) In small transactions, when personal security is given, from 18 to 37 per cent.
- (c) In large transactions, when jewels, &c., are pledged, from 6 to 12 per cent.
- (d) When bankers lend money to bankers on personal security, 6 to 9 per cent.
- (e) When land is mortgaged, from 9 to 18 per cent.

The rates of wages are as follows :—

- (a) Coolies and unskilled town labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ pence a day.
- (b) Agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 pence a day.
- (c) Bricklayers and carpenters, 6 pence to 2 shillings a day.

Female labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men.

Boys of from 12 to 16 get two-thirds of the wages of full-grown men; boys younger than that and girls from one-half to one-third.

The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were as follows:—

Grain.	Number of seers (2lbs.) for a rupee (2s.)			
	1st April.	1st August.	1st December.	Average.
Wheat	26	24	21	24
Rice	21	16	15	17
Jowâr	45	...	31	38
Bâjra	38	...	31	34
Dâl	27	29	27	28

Both wages and prices are on the whole rather lower than in the districts south of the Ghogra, but the construction of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, besides increasing the demand for labour, will probably tend to equalize prices.

24. *History.*—The tract of country north of the river Ghogra and between Oudh and Behar, which now forms the districts of Gorakhpur and Basti, was originally included in the ancient kingdom of Kosâla, of which Ajudhia was the capital. Rámá visited the district, and passed some time near the junction of the Rapti and the Ghogra. His death and the destruction of Ajudhia may be placed at about 750 B.C. Gautama Budha, the founder of Buddhism, was born at Kapila, close to this district, and died at Kassia in it, so that Gorakhpur became the headquarters of the new religion, and was one of the first districts to receive it.

The next tradition is that one of the princes of the Solar dynasty of Ajudhia attempted to found a rival Kâshi (Benares) in the district, but that when it was nearly completed he was overwhelmed by the Thárus and Bhars. These latter held all the country north of the Ganges and east of Oudh for a long period and drove out the Aryans who had at first conquered them; they not only did this, but drove out the Surajbansi Hindús (Solar dynasty) from Ajudhia and ruled there for many generations. Their re-appearance and success seem to have been closely connected with the rise of Buddhism, for the Kshatria dynasty (Lunar) of Magadha was ousted at the same time by an invasion of Sudras at least as early as 350 B.C., and the Buddhist dynasty, to which Chandrá Gupta and Asoka belonged, was established in its place.

The Thárus are probably remnants of the Surajbansi who did not escape with the rest in the Bhár invasion, and were allowed to settle down here. If the Bhârs did, as is supposed, conquer the district about 450 B.C., they must

have held it first independently, then as allies of the Buddhist dynasty at Magadha, and then again independently for at least 1,000 years till about 550 A.D. From this time the Aryans began to recover their supremacy, and in about 600 A.D. the Rathors of Kanauj invaded the district and conquered all up to the river Rapti, the present town of Gorakhpur. In about 900 A.D. the Domhatárs, or military Brahmins, first appeared, and Mán Singh was then king of Gorakhpur. He was probably a Tháru, and the Thárus seem to have sided with the Rahtors against the Bhars. Hionen Tsang, who travelled through this part of the country in about 630, says it contained many Buddhist monasteries and towers, the relics of the long struggle between the Rahtors and Thárus on the one hand, and the Bhars on the other ; but he speaks of no ruling prince. The Domhatárs and other tribes of mixed Brahman and Rájput descent began to push up from the south and to dispossess the Rahtor chiefs, whom they expelled from the town of Gorakhpur.

Next after them came the Bhuinhárs, so well known in the neighbouring district of Azamgarh, and then the Rájputs or Bháts of Majholi, from whom Bissn Sen sprang. He established himself at Nagar (Salempur), and soon became one of the most powerful chiefs of this part of the country : his territory was separated from that of the Domhatárs by a broad tract of forest, and they did not come into collision. He lived between 1000 and 1100 A.D.

The Bhars still held the west of the district, and retained Amorha, in Basti, till the time of Akbar, 1556, when it was granted by him to the Jaipur princess he married. Her relations expelled the Bhars and founded the Amorha ráj.

In about 1300 A.D. the Rájputs who had been expelled from the western districts by the Muhammadans began to enter this district. Dhúr Chand established himself in Dhuriápár, and Chandra Sen in Satási. The latter murdered the Domhatár chief of Domangarh (the Gorakhpur fort), seized his fort, and established himself at Gorakhpur. During the 14th century the Batwal and Báasi Rájás carried on an incessant war which desolated the country fearfully, and from 1350 to 1450 the Satási and the Majholi Rájás waged war without intermission. The present town of Gorakhpur was founded about 1400, and about 1500 the Majholi family held the south-east ; the descendants of Dhúr Chand held the south-west ; the Anola and Satási dominions came next ; and in the extreme north-west the B utwal ráj.

All these Rájás seem to have been quite independent of one another, and quite isolated from the outer world, for no bridges or roads attest any intercourse with the districts to the south or east.¹

¹ Alexander, District Memoir.

Up to the time of Akbar the Musalmáns do not appear to have crossed the Ghogra, but Akbar in 1576 did so on his return from defeating Daud Khan, the king of Bengal. His general, Fidai Khan, defeated all the Rájás who opposed him and occupied Gorakhpur.

In about 1700 A.D., during Aurangzeb's reign, Prince Bahádur Shah paid a visit to Gorakhpur for the sake of the sport which the district afforded. He was then known as Prince Muazzim, and from him these districts were named Muazzimabad. Up to the time of the establishment of the Nawáb Vazirs of Oudh at Lucknow in 1721 the Musalmáns interfered very little with Gorakhpur, and allowed it to be controlled entirely by the native Rájás. But from Saadat Ali's accession a firmer grasp of the district was taken, and in 1750 a large army under Ali Kásim Khán was sent into it, which reduced it completely to submission; but even then the chakladar or Muhammadan governor exercised no real power, and collected what revenue he could get through the Rájás, who carried on war amongst themselves as they pleased.

In 1750—60 the Banjaras had become a regular scourge to the district: they first appeared from the west, 30 years before, but now united under leaders, they became formidable enough to contend with chiefs like the Rájá of Bánsi; they kept the eastern part of the district in terror and misery; they weakened the power of the Rájás so much that the latter could no longer resist the deputies and tax collectors of the Oudh Government, and the latter plundered and ravaged the district in a way which they had never dared to attempt before.

Soon after the battle of Buxar in 1764, a Major Hannay received charge of the Nawáb's troops, and of the revenues of Bahraich and Gorakhpur; but he only collected the revenues, and does not seem to have attempted to govern the district: he let it out in farm to underlings who rack-rented and pillaged the cultivators till half of them left the district.

At the same time the Satási and Budwal Rájás entered into a contest, which ended in the defeat of the former in 1788. The Bánsi Rájá drove the Banjaras out of his territory in 1790, but the Majholi Rájá gave up to them the eastern part of his district, and by this means saved the Majholi parganah from them and from the farmers.

The district was ceded to the English in 1801 with the other ceded provinces, and in December of that year Mr. Routledge was put in charge of the country which now forms the three districts of Gorakhpur, Basti, and Azamgarh. He got rid of the Nawáb's troops and of the amils, and appointed officials of his own, and soonafter that a three years' settlement of the district was made which

gave it a little peace, till in 1806 a second triennial 'settlement followed, which laid the foundations of a permanent revenue administration, and from this time our chief difficulties were due to the extent of the district, and our ignorance of the capabilities of the outlying parts of it, and to the corruption of our native subordinates : open resistance had ceased, and in 1805 the collector reported that the last of the forts of the contumacious zemindars had been levelled to the ground.¹

A new settlement was made in 1810 which somewhat appeased the discontent produced by our stricter rule, but in 1813 the Nipális invaded the north of the district and ravaged a great part of it, till they were defeated and expelled in 1815. By 1818 the district had somewhat recovered its prosperity in the south, but was still very backward in the north and east, and in 1823 a more elaborate settlement than any previous one was made. The first grant of land was made to a European in 1830, and in 1828 a commissioner was appointed for Gorakhpur, Gházipur, and Azamgarh.

From this time the history of the district was uneventful till the mutiny of 1857.

On the 29th May, after receipt of the news of the Meerut outbreak, the surplus treasure was sent off with a guard of the 17th Native Infantry to Azamgarh, and reached there safely; but on the 5th June news reached Gorakhpur that the guard had mutinied at Azamgarh, and on the 8th the remainder of the 17th attempted to seize the treasure at Gorakhpur, but were prevented by the Irregular Cavalry (12th). On the 10th June the detachment of the 17th at Basti mutinied and plundered the opium treasury, but did not attack the Europeans there. On the 19th all the ladies with the fugitives from Faizábád and Gonda were sent on to Gházipur, and on the 30th June 200 Gurkhas from Nipál marched in.

The Gautam Rajputs under the Rájá of Nagar now took possession of all the northern and western parts of the district. On the 29th July Colonel Wroughton arrived with six Gurkha regiments, and the 17th Native Infantry and part of the 12th Cavalry were disarmed, the rest being faithful. On the 10th and 12th August the rebels took the Khalilábád and Captainganj tahsílis, and forty of the 12th deserted to them.

On the 13th August the Gurkhas marched for Azamgarh, and all the civil officers, but Mr. Bird, went with them. The rebels under Muhammad Hassan attacked them at Gugha on the 18th, but were repulsed, and on the 22nd they crossed into Azamgarh. Muhammad Hassan reached Gorakhpur on the 20th August, and Mr. Bird was compelled to flee to Motihári in Champáran.

¹ Alexander, District Memoir.

The whole district now fell into the hands of the rebels ; the Rájá of Gopálpur had to flee, and the Rájá of Bánsi was forced to submit. The Rájá of Salempur was attacked by a brother of Kuwar Singh of Arrah, and was only saved by the arrival of the Sáran force under Colonel Rowcroft.

On the 6th January, 1858, the Gurkha army under Jang Bahádur marched in and occupied Gorakhpur ; Muhammad Hassan was driven out of the city, and gradually he and the other rebels were expelled from the district, which passed under our rule again.

25. Administration.—The district has been administered in several different ways since its cession to us in 1801. From 1802 to 1828 there were two civil officers, one of whom was judge and magistrate, and the other was collector. Up to 1819 the district was under the charge of the board of commissioners for the ceded provinces ; it was then transferred to the board of commissioners for Bahar and Benares, and in 1822 to the board of revenue for the central provinces.

In 1828 the office of magistrate was separated from that of judge and annexed to that of collector, and in the same year a commissioner was appointed for Gorakhpur, Gházipur, and Azamgarh to reside at Gorakhpur. In 1834 the commissionership was transferred to Gházipur, where it remained till 1842, when it was removed to Benares. After the mutiny in 1858 a commissioner was re-appointed for Gorakhpur and Basti alone, and the office was retained till the separation of those two districts in 1865, when they were placed under the commissioner of Benares.

(a.) *Revenue and Criminal.*—The district staff generally consists of a magistrate and collector, two joint magistrates, one stationed at Kassia, an assistant magistrate, and a deputy magistrate (uncovenanted). There are six tahsildars or sub-magistrates and sub-collectors, and three special magistrates with local powers. Of these, the magistrate and joint magistrates have the powers of a 1st class magistrate, the assistant and deputy magistrates either 1st or 2nd class, and the sub-magistrates and special magistrates either 2nd or 3rd class.

The deputy magistrate, all the sub-magistrates, and 2 of the special magistrates are natives, the rest are Europeans. There are also a district superintendent of police, an inspector of customs, a sub-deputy opium agent and two assistants, and a civil surgeon.

(b.) *Civil.*—Gorakhpur is the headquarters of a civil and sessions judge, who also has the district of Basti under him. There is also a sub-judge (native)

with the same jurisdiction, and three munsifs (primary civil court) at Gorakhpur, Bánsgáon, and Golah respectively. In 1875 the total cost to the State of the maintenance of these courts (including Basti) was £7,675, and the amount realized by court fees and stamps was £10,686.

The number of cases decided by each class of courts was—

Judge, sub-judge, and munsifs	5,579
Magistrate, joint and assistant magistrates	3,920
Collector, deputy and assistant collector	2,843

The average value of the property under litigation in the civil courts (including Basti) was £21.

(c.) *Police*.—In the year 1875 the total strength of the district regular police force was 755. This number consisted of 1 district superintendent, 124 officers under the rank of inspector, 19 mounted and 453 foot constables. The cost of maintaining this force was £9,374. The total strength of the police is one man to every 6·07 square miles, and one man to every 2,674 persons in the total population. The cost of maintenance is equal to £2·04 per square mile, or 1·1 pence per head of the population.

There were in 1875, 2,298 village watchmen, or one to every 835 inhabitants and every 4 villages.

(d.) *Jails*.—There are a district jail and a magistrate's lock-up at Gorakhpur, besides the ordinary police and tahsili lock-ups.

(1.) The district jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 672 prisoners, of whom 616 were male and 56 female. It is under the charge of the civil surgeon, who has under him a jailor and 44 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 36-9-0.

The average outturn of labour was Rs. 6.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 1,915.

The rate of mortality was 5·35 per cent. on average strength.

(2.) The lock-up contained in 1875 a daily average of 45 under-trial prisoners, of whom 42 were males and 3 were females.

(e.) *Post-office and Telegraph*.—There are 18 imperial and 19 district post-offices in Gorakhpur. In 1871, 188,692 letters were received and 239,814 despatched.

There are no telegraph offices in Gorakhpur. Messages are sent by post from Faizábád.

There were 13 letters per head of population and 15·97 per educated person.

26. *Revenue and Finance*.—The district local funds amounted in 1875 to £ and the expenditure to £

There is only one municipality in Gorakhpur ; of this the receipts and expenditure were as follows in 1875 :—

Municipality.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Incidence of taxation per head.
	£	£	Rs. a. p.
Gorakhpur 	4,771	3,732	0 12 2

The whole amount of revenue raised in the district, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, in 1876 was £ or on a population of 2,100,124¹ an incidence per head of shillings : out of this £ or per cent. of the total receipts, was returned to the district in payment for its administration.

The new settlement of the revenue of the district was commenced in 1859 and finished in 1871. It has resulted in an increase in revenue from £208,259 to £283,418, or by £75,158. This includes the present district of Basti.

27. *Medical statistics.*—There are four dispensaries in the district—at Gorakhpur, Rudarpur, Kassia, and Barhalganj. The number of persons treated at these dispensaries in 1875 was 34,258, of whom 33,798 were out-door patients and 460 in-door. The total receipts were £1,113, and the establishment charges £600.

The total number of deaths in the year 1875 was 40,092, or 19·85 per 1,000 of the population ; the mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 for the previous six years was 18·23 ; 15,956 persons were vaccinated in 1875, of which 12,700 were successful operations.

28. *Education.*—There were 435 schools in the district in 1875 with 13,525 scholars, which gives an average area of 10·52 square miles for each school, and a percentage of 66 scholars on the total population. Of these 15 were female schools. The total cost of these was £4,012, of which £1,347 was paid from provincial and £2,665 from local sources.

29. *Fairs and Chief Towns.*—The chief towns with a population above 5,000 are—

(1.) Gorakhpur, on the river Rapti, in parganah Haveli, the headquarters of the district, is a city with a population of 51,117, an income of £2,603, a municipal taxation of Rs. 0·8·2 per head, and an area of 727 square acres, or 70 persons per acre.

(2.) Barhaj, on the river Rapti, on the road from Gorakhpur to Ghatni Ghât via Rudrapur. This town had a population of over 5,000 in 1871, but it is not included in the list of towns over 5,000 in the census of 1872 : it is a trading mart of some importance.

¹ Corrected to 1876.

(3.) Gaura Khas, in parganah Salempur Majholi, on the river Rapti, one mile west of Barhaj, is a town with a population of 5,482, an area of 103 square acres, with 53 persons to the acre, a municipal income of £75, and a municipal taxation of Rs. 0-2-2.

(4.) Rudrapur, in parganah Silhat, on the Gorakhpur and Barhaj road, and on the river Majhua, has a population of 6,538, an area of 159 square acres, with 41 persons to the acre, a municipal income of £172, and a taxation of Rs. 0-4-3.

(5.) Amwa Khás is a town with a population of 6,150, an area of 145 square acres, with 42 persons to the acre. It is in parganah Sidhua Jobna.

(6.) Pena, in parganah Salempur Majholi, a town with a population of 5,331, an area of 92 square acres, or with 58 persons to the acre.

(7.) Gola or Madáriah, in parganah Dhuriápur, a town with a population of 5,147, an area of 72 square acres, with 72 persons to the acre, a municipal income of £86, and a taxation of Rs. 0-2-8 per head. It is on the river Kuánah, 26 miles south of Gorakhpur.

(8.) Padronah, in parganah Sidhua Jobna, has a population of 5,092, an area of 91 square acres, with 56 persons to the acre, a municipal income of £111, and a taxation of Rs. 0-3-6 per head. It is 40 miles east of Gorakhpur.

30. *Archæology.*—(1.) At Kassia (the ancient Kusianagra, where Budha died) are many interesting remains, particularly the colossal statue of Budha.

(2.) At Lauria, in the east of the district, is one of the famous pillars of Asoka inscribed with his edicts, and in Nahaon, in parganah Salempur, there is another pillar erected by some Gupta king.

(3.) At Rudarpur there are still the remains of the enormous fort erected by the Rájputs when first threatened by the Bhars before the re-conquest of the district by the latter.

(4.) At the north-west corner of the Ramabhar lake at Kassia there are (besides the colossal statue of Budha abovementioned) a lofty mound of solid brickwork called Devisthán, and an oblong mound with a brick tower (stupa) on it. The statue lies apart at some distance near a ruined shrine.

A. COTTERELL TUPP.

JAUNPUR.

JAUNPUR.

A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. *Position and area.*—The district of Jaunpur—bounded on the north-west by the Oudh districts of Partábgarh and Sultánpur, on the north by Faizábad, on the north-east by Azamgarh, on the east by Gházipur, on the south by Benares and Mirzapur, and on the west by Allahabad—lies between $25^{\circ} 23' 15''$ and $26^{\circ} 13' 0''$ north latitude, and $82^{\circ} 10' 0''$ and $83^{\circ} 7' 45''$ east longitude, and contains an area of 1,556 square miles and a population of 1,025,961, or 659 to the square mile.

2. *Subdivisions.*—The district is divided into five tahsilis or sub-collectories and 18 parganahs, as follows, from south to north:—

Tahsilí.	Parganah.				Revenue, 1876.
	1.	2.	3.	4.	£
1. Mariáhu	1. Mariáhu	18,673
		2. Gopálpur	5,821
		3. Bargati	8,085
2. Karákat	1. Karákat	2,823
		2. Dariapar...	1,789
		3. Pisára	3,240
		4. Guryára	12,676
		5. Chaudwak	842
3. Machhlishahr	1. Mungra	7,383
		2. Garwára	12,676
		3. Ghisna	8,173
4. Jaunpur	1. Kariát Dost	2,154
		2. Rári, south-east	6,003
		3. Jaunpur...	18,507
		4. Zafarábád	888
		5. Saremu	2,088
		6. Bialsí	4,594
5. Kutáshan	1. Ungli Mahaul	16,213
		2. Chanda	2,138
		3. Rári, north-west	3,236
		4. Kariát Mendha	996
		Total	£124,999

3. *Physical geography and boundaries.*—The extreme length of the district from north to south is 53 miles, and the breadth from east to west is 56 miles: in shape it is an irregular triangle, the southern boundary forming the base, and the eastern and western boundaries running to an apex in the north. The district, though part of the great Gangetic plain, is slightly undulating, owing

to the action of streams; and the apparent irregularity of the surface is increased by lofty and often tree-grown mounds, thrown up round ancient banks or representing the sites of ruined and deserted villages, the relics of races now extinct, or the demolished forts of the present Rajput occupants. Excepting in the northern parts and in a few tracts rendered barren by saline deposits, the whole district is closely cultivated and richly wooded with groves of mango or clumps of mahua and tamarind trees.

The district is divided into two main portions by the river Gumti, which traverses its whole length from north-west to south-east, and the part north-east of the river is only about half as large as the part south-west of it.

This latter is again divided into two portions by the river Sai, which enters the district in the extreme west in parganah Garwára, and runs right across it till it falls into the Gumti, ten miles south-east of Jaunpur.

The part north of the Gumti contains the whole of parganah Ungli Mahaul in the Katáhan tahsil, the whole of Saremu and half Jaunpur parganah in the Jaunpur tahsil, and the whole of parganahs Dariapár, Pisára, and Chandwak in the Karákat tahsil. The part between the Gumti and the Sai contains the Chánda, Kariát Mendha, and Rári parganas of the Katáhan tahsil, half of the Garwára parganah of the Machhlishahr tahsil, and the remaining half of the Jaunpur parganah in the Jaunpur tahsil.

The part south of the Sai and Gumti contains all the Machhlishahr tahsil except the above part of the Garwára parganah, the whole of the Mariáhu tahsil, the Bialsí parganah in the Jaunpur tahsil, and the Guryára parganah in the Karákat tahsil.

The district is bounded along its south-west border, from the point of junction of pargarahs Ghiswa and Bhadoi by the Barna river, which divides it from the Allahabad and Mirzapur districts, and then flows through the Benares district into the Ganges at Benares ; from the point where the Barna leaves it the southern border turns north-east and curves round parganahs Pandraha, Kot Asia, and Sultánpur of the Benares district, till it reaches the Gumti, and it then follows that for seven miles till the river leaves the district on the borders of the Gházipur and Benares districts.

The eastern border then goes due north along the Khanpur parganah of Gházipur for 10 miles, and then trends north-east for 18 miles till it reaches a point nine miles due east of Jaunpur. There it turns north again and separates Mahúl parganah of Azamgarh from Ungli Mahaul parganah of this district for 34 miles, till it meets the western boundary at the apex of the district.

The western boundary runs south-west for 64 miles till it reaches the point where the Sai river enters the district, thence it turns due south, and continues for 20 miles till it strikes the Barna river. It divides the North-Western Provinces from Oudh throughout.

There is a detached portion of the district, part of parganah Chanda, just south of the Gumti and 4 to 6 miles north-west of the main part of parganah Chanda, from which it is separated by Oudh territory.

4. *Rivers*.—The only rivers in the district are (1) the Gumti, (2) the Sai, (3) the Barna, (4) the Pilli, and (5) the Basohi.

At Jaunpur it is traversed by the famous Muhammadan bridge built by Mumzim Khan in 1569-73 : the bridge consists of 16 arches and is 712 feet long. About 2 miles lower it is crossed by the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway bridge, 1,480 feet long and with 16 arches.

Its channel, which is cut through clay, kankar, and sand, often in alternate layers, is deep and well defined. It is seldom to be forded even in the driest weather : its velocity is low, not exceeding three miles an hour in the rains. It is then navigated by the largest craft, employed chiefly in bringing down grain from Oudh. Its most remarkable feature is its liability to great and sudden floods. A great one took place in 1774, but the greatest of all occurred so lately as September, 1871, when the river rose 23 feet 6 inches in 14 days, and was 37 feet above its dry season level. It destroyed 4,000 houses in the city and 9,000 in the villages along its banks. It was kept back by the high banks which it has itself piled up at its mouth where it enters the Ganges. Owing to the depth of its channel and the hardness of the kankar strata which it encounters, the action of erosion and change of channel is so slow that riparian disputes are almost unknown.

(2.) The Sai enters the district in parganah Garwára, 4 miles east of Garwára, and 30 miles east of Jaunpur. It flows through the middle of parganah Garwára for 20 miles, and then divides it from Ghiswa for 4 miles. It next divides Kaprasa and Kariat Dost from parganahs Rári and Jaunpur for 13 miles, and then the latter from Mariáhu for 11 miles, and from Bialsí for 10 miles ; finally falling into the Gumti at a point 10 miles south-east of Jaunpur.

It is crossed on the Allahabad road at Pul Guryára, 8 miles west of Jaunpur, by a bridge of four pointed arches erected on the foundations of the ancient arched bridge built by Akbar's viceroy ; and at Sai Jalálpur, on the Bénares road, by a bridge built in 1510 of nine pointed arches, with a roadway of 295 feet, and also by a railway bridge of 18 spans and a roadway of 1,191 feet. Its channel is less deep and its banks more shelving than those of the Gumti. During the rains it is navigable by good sized vessels : it is subject to floods, and in that of 1871 it rose 26 feet 6 inches in 14 days.

(3.) The Barna river bounds the district throughout its south-western border from the point where parganahs Ghiswa and Bhadoi (of Mirzapur) meet, and divides parganahs Badshahpur, Ghiswa, and Mariáhu from parganahs Sikandra and Meh of Allahabad, and from Bhadoi of Mirzapur. It has a course of 60 miles while touching this district, but does not enter it at any point.

(4.) The Pilli river enters the district in Taluka Singramau in parganah Chanda, traverses that and Rári, and falls into the Gumti about 25 miles above Jaunpur. It is a continuation of a singular line of jhils or lakes extending through the Rae Bareli and Sultanpur districts, and which were probably the ancient bed of the Gumti. It is crossed by a bridge of three arches on the Jaunpur and Lucknow road.

(5.) The Basohi takes its rise in the north of parganah Mariáhu from smaller streams, and flowing south-east for 24 miles, it falls into the Barna at the extreme south-east point of the district. It is extremely winding throughout its course, and flows between steep banks of clay and kankar. It is bridged on the Jaunpur and Mirzapur road.

5. *Lakes.*—The lowlands, especially in the north and west of the district, are covered with water in the rains, and in the dry weather abound in temporary lakes and ponds.

The centre of the district is comparatively free from these, there being no lakes of any size in the Chanda and Kariat Mendha parganahs, and the whole of the Jaunpur and Karakat sub-collectorates ; but in Ungli Mahaul in the north and in Machhlishahr and Mariáhu in the south there are numerous large lakes. The chief of these are—(1) in Ungli Mahaul (a) the large S-shaped lake in the

extreme north, stretching from Zainpur to near Sarai Mohi-ud-din, and about 5 miles long and from a quarter of a mile to a mile broad; (b) the group of lakes around Kheta Sarai: the two southern are long, narrow, irregularly shaped pieces of water, one stretching from the eastern boundary of the district to the railway about 8 miles, and the other from Kheta Sarai south-west to Adhanpur about 4 miles: the northern ones consist of 11 or 12 different jhils scattered over the ground between the eastern border and Lowain, the largest of which is that between Rani Mau and Nauli.

(2.) In Machhlishahr (a) there is a large lake in the centre of parganah Garwara, just south of the Sai: it is $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles long and half a mile broad, and of horse-shoe shape; (b) between the last and Machhlishahr, in the north of parganah Ghiswa, there are seven lakes of various sizes and shapes; (c) in the north-west of parganah Badshahpur there are two large lakes due north of Badshahpur: they are each about 2 miles long by three-quarters of a mile broad; (d) in the south of parganah Badshahpur there is a good sized fan-shaped lake of about a mile long and a mile broad, at the top tapering to a quarter of a mile at the southern end.

(3.) In Mariáhu all the lakes but one lie north of the road from Benares to Sultanpur which passes through Mariáhu: there are two in the north-west near Jamua, three just north of Mariáhu, and two in the north-east of the parganah on the Balsi border. The only one south of the road is about 3 miles south-east of Mariáhu. All these lakes are of moderate size, the largest not exceeding 3 miles in length.

6. *Forests and waste lands.*—Local tradition represents the district as being covered with forests as late as the 14th century; and, at the beginning of our rule, towards the end of the eighteenth century there were still large forests in Ungli and Chándwa. These have disappeared before increased population and extended cultivation. The largest jungle tract is a small forest, chiefly of dhák trees, covering about 2,000 acres, in tappa Dariapar, tahsil Karakat.

There are no waste lands, except occasional tracts of úsar or saltpetre deposit.

7. *Geology.*—The district is, like nearly all others, an alluvial plain formed by the deposits of the rivers which flow down from the Himalayan range. These alluvial beds are of unknown depth, and the strata below them are quite unattainable and unknown. The depth at which water is reached varies from 6 feet in the extreme north in Ungli, to 90 feet in the extreme south in Mariáhu; the depth is always greatest in the neighbourhood of rivers, and greatest of all near the Barna. In the south of the district the beds met with are first loam,

then kankar with clay, then sand, and lastly the water-bearing strata.

8. *Climate.*—The average total rainfall was 43·0 inches for the ten years from 1861 to 1870. During this period the maximum was 51·6 inches in 1863-64, and the minimum was 22·0 inches in 1864-65.

The climate is moister, the temperature more equable, and the rainfall more evenly distributed through the year than in most districts of the North-Western Provinces. More rain falls in the northern than in the southern parts of the district. The prevailing winds are easterly, but west winds blow in April and May.

9. *Minerals and trees.*—Kankar or nodular limestone is found in all the higher ground at various distances from the surface, and crops out in the form of low irregular rocks or fine broken gravel: no other minerals are found in the district.

The trees are the usual ones found in the Eastern Duáb and the Benares division, such as the mango, mahua, shisham, sirsa, amaltas, bair, pipal, bargad, imli, kachnár, babúl, bel, aunla, and sainjná. The three first afford useful timber, and the first two and the bair fruits, while the last three are used as medicines.

10. *Animals, birds, and fish.*—Owing to the density of the population and the absence of forests or waste lands wild animals are scarce. Wolves are common in the ravines of the Gumti and the Sai and their tributaries. Foxes, squirrels, flying-foxes, bats, porcupines, ichneumons, and a few nilgai (blue bulls) are almost the only animals found. Snakes, particularly the kobra and karait, are very common : 132 deaths from their bites were reported in 1872.

Of birds, wild geese and duck, teal, quail, and partridges abound : the former three on all the lakes and marshes in the cold season, and the latter in the fields and ravines. All the usual domestic animals occur, but there are no special breeds of cattle or horses requiring notice.

The Gumti, Sai, and Barna, and their smaller tributaries, as well as the lakes and tanks, all abound with fish, among which the anwári (mullet), bám (eel), bachua, bakur, chilwa, hilsa, rahu, and karonchi are the commonest. They are captured by nets, baskets, spears and hooks used for snatching as well as by angling. The rivers are open to all, but the right of fishing in the tanks is jealously guarded by the proprietors of the land, who derive large sums from the sale of the fish.

11. *Population.*—In the census of 1872 there were 1,556 square miles in the Jaunpur district with 3,221 mauzas, 200,438 houses, and a population of 1,025,961. There were 659 persons and 2·0 villages to the square mile, 319

persons per village, and 5·1 persons per house. There were 1,090 masonry houses and 199,348 mud ones.

Of the sexes there were 545,700 males and 480,169 females.

The numbers of each religion and sex were as follows:—

Hindús	...	{ Males Females	496,665
			482,860
		Total				
Musalmáns	...	{ Males Females	49,018
			47,301
		Total				
Christians	...	{ Males Females	17
			8
		Total				

The percentages of each sex and religion on the total population were as follows:—

Hindús	90·6	Males	53·2
Musalmáns	9·4	Females	46·8

There were 3·0 persons per cent. above 60 years of age, and 8,651 males able to read and write. The total agricultural population was 700,933. The area of assessed land was 1,536 square miles, of which 149 were uncultivable, 451 cultivable, and 935 cultivated.

The amount of land revenue was £125,072, the rates and cesses on land £9,887, and the incidence of the land revenue per culturable acre was Re. 1-6-6. The percentage of agricultural on total population was 68·3. The numbers of the chief Hindú castes and Musalmán tribes were as follows:—

Hindús	...	Brahmans	131,756
		Rajputs	109,995
		Banias	18,732
		Ahirs	151,037
		Chamárs	130,388
		Kaiths	13,335
		Kurmis	38,366
		Shekhs	19,919
		Saieds	3,437
Musalmáns	...	Mughals	391
		Patháns	12,522

The numbers of males above 15 in each of the six great classes of occupations were:—

Professional	1,721
Domestic	21,480
Commercial	10,123
Agricultural	244,877
Industrial	32,481
Indefinite	38,487
			Total	...	346,169

There were altogether 3,221 inhabited villages and towns, of which 1,522 contained less than 200 inhabitants; 1,145 less than 500; 425 less than 1,000; 109 less than 2,000; 16 less than 3,000; 2 less than 5,000; 1 less than 10,000; and 1 more than 20,000.

The following figures give the comparative results of the three censuses of 1853, 1865, and 1872:—

Area.—This was the same 1,552 square miles in 1853 and 1865; in 1872 it was 1,556, and increased by 4, or '2 per cent., or '01 per cent per annum in the whole nineteen years.

Population.—The total population was 1,143,749 in 1853; in 1865, 1,015,427; and in 1872, 1,025,961: it therefore decreased by 128,322, or 12·6 per cent., in the first period from 1853 to 1865, and increased in the second by 10,534, or 1·03 per cent., from 1865 to 1872, and decreased by 117,788, or 11·4 per cent., in the whole nineteen years from 1853 to 1872.

The annual rate of decrease in the first period was 1·05 per annum, and in the second period the increase was '14, and the decrease on the whole nineteen years '6 per annum.

This district, like many others in the lower divisions, decreased largely in the first period, and only regained a very small portion (about $\frac{1}{2}$ th) of its loss in the second period.

Sex.—There were of males in 1853, 608,207; in 1865, 555,847; and in 1872, 545,700; they therefore decreased in the first period by 52,360, or 9·4 per cent., and in the second by 10,147, or 1·8 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 62,507, or 11·4 per cent.

There were of females in 1853, 535,542; in 1865, 459,580; and in 1872, 480,169: they therefore decreased in the first period by 75,962, or 16·5 per cent., and increased in the second period by 20,589, or 4·4 per cent., and decreased in the whole period by 55,373, or 11·4 per cent.

The proportion of males to females was—

1·13 to 1 in 1853.

1·20 „ 1 „ 1865.

1·13 „ 1 „ 1872.

The proportion of males therefore increased slightly in the first period, and then returned to its former amount.

The males decreased by 9·4 per cent., 1·8, and 11·4 on the whole. The females decreased by 16·5 per cent., and increased by 4·4 in the second period, and decreased by 11·4 on the whole. So that the females decreased half as fast again as the males in the first period ; they increased by 4 per cent. in the second, whereas the males decreased nearly 2 per cent., and on the whole both sexes decreased equally, *viz.*, by 11 per cent.

The annual rates were—

	Decrease per cent.				Increase per cent.			
	Males.		Females.		Males.		Females.	
In the first period	·78	1·3
In the second period	·25	···	·61	...
In the whole period	·6	·6

12. Religion.—There were of Hindús in 1853, 1,031,588 ; in 1865, 928,345 ; in 1872, 929,525 ; they therefore decreased in the first period by 103,243, or 11·1 per cent., and increased in the second period by 1,180, or 1 per cent., and decreased in the whole period of nineteen years by 102,063, or 10·9 per cent.

There were of Musalmáns in 1853, 112,161 ; in 1865, 87,082 ; and in 1872, 96,319 : they therefore decreased in the first period by 25,079, or 28·8, and increased in the second period by 9,237, or 10·6 per cent., and decreased in the whole period of nineteen years by 15,842, or 16·4 per cent.

The proportion of Hindús to Musalmáns was—

9·19 to 1 in 1853.

11·80 „ 1 „ 1865.

9·65 „ 1 „ 1872.

The proportion of Hindús therefore increased considerably in the first period, and then fell back nearly to its original level.

The Hindús decreased by 11·1 in the first period, and increased by 1 in the second, and decreased by 10·9 on the whole. The Musalmáns decreased

by 28·8 in the first period, and increased by 10·6 in the second, and decreased by 16·4 on the whole.

The Musalmáns therefore decreased more than twice as fast as the Hindús in the first period, and increased 100 times as much in the second, while on the whole they decreased half as much again. In this district the variations on both sides among the Musalmáns is remarkably great, compared to those among the Hindús.

13. *Land revenue.*—In 1853 the land revenue was Rs. 12,54,095, in 1865 Rs. 12,51,925, in 1872 Rs. 12,50,729 : it therefore decreased by Rs. 2,170, or 1 per cent., and in the second period decreased by Rs. 1,196, or .09 per cent., while the total decrease on the whole period was 3,366, or .2 per cent. The decrease was therefore .008 per annum from 1853 to 1865, .01 per annum from 1865 to 1872, and .01 per annum from 1853 to 1872.

Number of mauzas.—This was 3,431 in 1853, and the same in 1865 ; they decreased in 1872 to 3,221, i. e., by 210, or 6·5 per cent.

Persons per square mile.—In 1853 there were 737 persons per square mile, in 1865 there were 654, in 1872 there were 659 : the density of population therefore decreased by 83 in the first period of twelve years, or by 12·6 per cent., or 1·05 per cent. per annum ; it increased by 5 during the second period of seven years, or by .7 per cent., or .1 per cent. per annum, and decreased by 78, or 11·8 per cent., or .6 per cent. per annum in the whole period of nineteen years. This district therefore decreased more than double as much as any district in this division, and decreased more than any district in the Jhánsi division, except Lalitpur.

The rates of decrease and increase of density of population in the districts of this division are as follows :—

1. Cawnpore	1·0	per cent. decrease.
2. Fatehpur	2·0	„ „ „
3. Banda	2·9	„ „ „
4. Allahabad	2·6	„ increase.
5. Hamírpur	5·6	„ decrease.
6. Jaunpur	11·8	„ „ „
<hr/>				
Average	3·5	per cent. decrease.

14. *Town and village population.*—Almost all the houses have mud walls, the better sorts have tiled roofs, but most are thatched. The larger ones have a vestibule or dálán, a courtyard in which the cattle are tied at night, into

which the apartments of the women open, round which are the store-rooms, granaries and sheds, and where male friends are received and entertained. There are only two towns which contain more than 5,000 inhabitants, *viz.*, Jaunpur with 23,327, Machhlishahr with 8,715, or 32,042 in all; so that only one-thirty-second part of the whole population lives in large towns. Out of the total of 3,221 towns and villages 1,522, or very nearly a half, contained less than 200 inhabitants, and 2,667, or nearly seven-eighths, contained less than 500 inhabitants, so that all but one-eighth of the inhabitants of the district are scattered about in small villages, as is usual in the eastern districts, in opposition to the practice in the western ones, where a considerable proportion of the population is collected together in large towns.

15. *Value of house and furniture.*—The cost of building a house of the best class may be considered to be from £200 upwards, of the 2nd class from £15 to £150, and of the 3rd class from £1 to £10.

A trader's house of the better class contains generally about £50 worth of furniture and utensils of all kinds. Bedsteads, mattrasses, quilts, carpets, and boxes would represent about £30 worth of this, and cooking vessels the remainder.

A well-to-do cultivator owns a few strong boxes and bedsteads and quilts worth about £10, besides cooking vessels worth £5 or £6. An artizan in middling circumstances possesses one or two mattrasses, bedsteads and quilts, and some drinking vessels worth altogether about £3.

A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars, one or two quilts, and perhaps a cot worth in all 10 shillings to a pound. The labourers, mechanics, and poorer cultivators are all in condition much the same: the coarsest and scantiest clothing and food, a hut, with a few vessels necessary for cooking, rough mud walls, and a thatch to cover them being usually the extent of their possessions.

The Kurmis and Káchis are much better off than others; they cultivate the poppy, tobacco, and vegetables, make larger profits, and are more steady and industrious; and from their being able to pay higher rents they are much sought after by landlords, and are very rarely disturbed in their holdings. The poorest have a hut with four mud walls, one room, and a hurdle for a door. There is next to no furniture; a bedstead or two (of grass cord stretched on a wooden frame), a mat or two, and some rough earthen jars for grain or ghi are all. In the better houses the cooking vessels are made of brass and iron, and there are boxes and baskets for clothes and valuables, but there is no real furniture.

16. *Trades-unions.*—As in other districts, there are no organized trades unions in the English sense of the word, but the powerful caste pánháyats

answer very much the same purpose, though they have a much wider field of action than an English trades-union has. Goldsmiths, grain dealers, cloth merchants, and other traders have guilds which regulate their trade customs. All questions of a domestic nature or affecting the social arrangements of classes and castes, disputes regarding petty debts or the occupancy of lands for tillage are adjudicated on by pancháyats.

17. *Village communities.*—The villages in this district, as in nearly all in the North-West, may be classified into three kinds, according to the modes in which the land is held and the Government revenue paid:—

(1.) *Zamindari.*—Where the whole of the land belongs to several owners in joint occupation.

(2.) *Imperfect pattidari.*—Where the village is partly held by several owners in joint occupation, and partly by several owners in severalty or separate occupation.

(3.) *Pattidari.*—Where the land has been completely divided among the sharers, and is held by several owners in severalty, but under one tenure as regards the Government.

There is also a fourth kind of mahál or estate called bhaiachára, where, though it belongs to the second or third class, the rights and interests of each co-sharer are not determined by his ancestral share, but by custom or possession. In a village the lowest and poorest class are the casual or day-labourers who get work in the fields as they can; next are the permanent labourers and farm servants; and thirdly the village mechanics, such as the blacksmith, carpenter, potter, &c. Next to these are the poorer cultivators, who, owning but little land, eke out a livelihood by hiring themselves out for field labour; and above these again the tenants-at-will, whose holdings are large enough to support them and their families.

We then reach the tenants with rights of occupancy, who holding at fixed rents are better off than the others: among these are almost always the ex-proprietors of the land, who have lost it through private debts or from inability to pay the Government demand, and so have come to hold it from the auction-purchaser. They are generally Brahmans or Rajputs. Above them are the mahájans or bankers and money-lenders, and highest in the social scale are the landowners, who, if prosperous, generally unite the last mentioned occupation with their other duties.

18. *Condition of the people.*—Among the Hindús of the district the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the first class, or having incomes over £100

a year, £96 to £180; (2) for those in the second class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 a year, about £18 to £60; and (3) for those in the third class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musal-máns it would be rather more, as their habits are somewhat more expensive.

The labouring classes include all those who are unable to obtain land as tenants from want of credit, intelligence, or will. Permanent labourers or farm servants are paid in grain, an adult getting $2\frac{1}{2}$. lbs. of the coarser grains with something extra at harvest time and festivals, and a suit of clothes once a year. They also get some parched gram and treacle for the midday meal. Temporary labourers receive 2d. a day in their own villages, or $2\frac{1}{4}$ d. in other villages, and 3d. if working for Europeans or Government officials. In spite of increased demand for labour on the railways, plenty can be obtained at these rates, and even in Jaunpur itself men will take 6s. a month, and a landowner can procure a messenger for from 4s. to 5s. a month. There is a small amount of emigration, 1,154 emigrants having been attested from 1864 to 1872.

The village workmen, the blacksmith, carpenter, potter, and oilman, are slightly above the labourers in condition, and the latter sometimes become comparatively well off.

19. *Character of the soil.*—The prevailing soils are those known as “dumat,” “mattiara,” and “balua” or loam, clayey and sandy. In all vegetable mould clay and sand are found in varying proportions; the first is a rich loam, the second a strong tenacious clay, and the third a light sandy soil. A dark alluvial mould called “karel,” and answering to the “mar” of Bundelkhand, is found where temporary lakes have subsided or in old river-beds.

20. *Course of tillage.*—There are two harvests, the kharif or autumn one, and the rabbi or spring one. The kharif crops are sown in June, directly the first rain falls, and are harvested in October and November, and some of the rice in September, or even as early as the end of August, but cotton is not ripe for picking till February. Besides cotton and rice they include bájra juár, mot, &c. The rabbi crops are sown in October and November, and reaped in March and April; they consist of corn, barley, oats, vetch and peas, and dál or arhar.

The agricultural year begins with preparation for sowing the rain crops, and ends when the spring crops are carried, that is, it lasts from June to March. On the first rain the ploughs are set to work, each drawn by one yoke of oxen and tended by a ploughman generally of the lowest caste. The plough is constructed of two pieces of wood, and with the iron tooth which serves for both share and coulter costs less than one shilling. Sowing is done broad-

cast, drills being unknown. A wooden board drawn by bullocks serves for clod crusher and harrow; rice is the most important of the autumn crops. The commoner kinds are sown broadcast, and the better sorts are sown out in seed beds and then transplanted in clumps. Maize is extensively cultivated, and is valued for ripening so early as it does, *viz.*, in September; juár and bájra (the large millets) are only grown in small quantities, but the small millets, "sonwan," kakun, and maddua, are grown largely.

The quantity of land taken up for the autumn crops varies with the earliness of the rains and other circumstances, but it averages a third of the entire cultivable area, though near the towns almost all land is cultivated with both crops.

In the low-lying rice lands and in those devoted to sugarcane, arhar, (dál), and indigo only one crop a year is grown, but in all others directly the autumn crop is off the ground it is prepared for the spring one.

The best soils are selected for wheat, both the bearded and smooth kinds; next to these comes barley, which is the most favourite crop of all. Peas are usually sown in the barley land in alternate years, and peas and barley together are often sown after maize in the same year.

Sugarcane is the most profitable crop, but it requires much labour and care, and the land should be left fallow for six months or a year for it. It is prepared by three to five ploughings, and by the admixture of plenty of manure.

The cane is planted by cutting up the lowest joint, including the root, into pieces a foot in length, and after soaking them in water, inserting them in the prepared ground.

21. *Years of scarcity.*—The first year of scarcity of which anything is known was 1770, when this district suffered like all the other eastern ones. In 1783 and in 1803 there was scarcity, but no famine.

The great famine of 1837-38 of course affected Jaunpur, but its worst ravages were confined to the western districts. The famine of 1860-61 was hardly felt as far east as Jaunpur, though burglaries and thefts doubled in number in 1862; but the Bengal famine of 1874 was felt here, though not so much as in the trans-Gogra districts.

Jaunpur, like the neighbouring district of Azamgarh, has enjoyed a singular immunity from famine, and not even in the great famines of 1783, 1837, and 1860 was there any extensive and acute distress such as prevailed in the more western districts. The rainfall never fails entirely, and is generally spread over the year so as to secure one or other harvest from drought.

The great floods of 1871 desolated large tracts along the rivers Sai and Gumti, but of course did not affect the parts of the district at a distance from them.

22. *Communications and Trade.* (1.)—*Railways.*—The district is traversed from south to north by the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, 45 miles in length. It enters the district at Lahangpur, 35 miles south of Jaunpur, passes through parganahs Balsi, Jaunpur, and Ungli Mahaul, and leaves the district in the extreme north of the last parganah at Urgupur. It crosses the Sai at Jalálpur, and the Gumti at Jaunpur. There are six stations at—

							Distance from Benares.
Jalálganj	25
Jaunpur (civil)	32
Jaunpur (city)	36
Marai	43
Kheta Sarai	50
Sháhganj	56

(2.) *Metalled roads.*—There are 145 miles of metalled roads, as follows:—

(a) The Allahabad and Azamgarh road, passing through Badsháhpur, Ghiswa, Machhlishahr, and Jaunpur; length in the district 46 miles: bridged and metalled throughout.

(b) The Mirzapur and Fyzabad road, passing through Rampur, Mariáhu, Jaunpur, and Kheta Sarai: length in the district 53 miles: metalled throughout. The Barna, Basohi, and Sai are traversed by ferries.

(c) The Benares and Lucknow road *via* Sultánpur passes through Sai, Jalálpur, Jaunpur, Baksha, Badlapur, Singramau, and Koiripur: length in the district 48 miles: it is metalled and bridged.

(d) The Benares and Azamgarh road only traverses this district for 10 miles through the Chándwah parganah. It crosses the Gumti near Chándwah by a ferry, and is metalled throughout.

(3.) *Unmetalled roads.*—There are 364 miles of unmetalled road in the district, of which the chief lines are—

(a) Benares to Partábgarh, 40 miles in this district, passing through Mariáhu and Machhlishahr; raised and generally bridged.

(b) Allahabad to Akbarpur, 52 miles in this district, passing through Badsháhpur, Shiojanganj, Badlapur, Katáhan, and Sarai Mohi-ud-din; raised and bridged, except on the Sai and Gumti.

23. *Money-lending, wages, and prices.*—The rates of interest at present (1877) charged in the district are as follows:—

(a) In small transactions, when articles are pawned, from 12 to 18 per cent.

- (b) In small transactions when personal security is given, from 18 to 37 per cent. (generally 24 per cent.)
- (c) In large transactions, when jewels, &c., are pledged, from 6 to 12 per cent.
- (d) When bankers lend money to bankers on personal security, 6 to 9 per cent.
- (e) When land is mortgaged, from 9 to 18 per cent. (12 per cent. if possession is given).

The rates of wages are as follows :—

(a) Coolies and unskilled labourers 2 to 3 pence a day.

(b) Agricultural labourers $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 pence a day.

(c) Bricklayers and carpenters 6 pence to 2 shillings a day.

Female labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men.

Boys of from 12 to 16 get two-thirds of the wages of full-grown men ; boys younger than that and girls from one-half to one-third.

The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were as follows :—

<i>Number of seers (2 lbs.) for a rupee (2s.)</i>				
	1st April.	1st August.	1st December.	Average.
Wheat	28	25	25
Rice	8	8	8
Juár	0	0	37
Bájra	19	16	22
Dál	22	28	25

Wages are low, but the lowest rates enable a man to feed and clothe himself and have a little over : there is a redundancy of labour, and men from this district are found on railway and other works all over Northern India.

24. *History.*—In the earliest times Jaunpur was held by the Bhars, the aboriginal tribe which occupied all this part of India ; but few traces of their long occupation are now left. Along the banks of the Barna are the sites of large cities destroyed by fire, perhaps at the time when Brahmanism was finally victorious over Buddhism, and on the banks of the Gumti stood vast temples which perished in the first inroads of the Musalmáns, but of the founders or of the age of these cities and temples nothing is known.

Jaunpur was in pre-historic times, no doubt, under the princes of Ajudhia, but when it is first heard of in history it was subject to the rulers of Benares,

and with the rest of the Benares province it fell beneath the yoke of the Musalmán after the victory of Shaháb-ud-din over Jai Chand near Etawah in 1194 A.D. From this time the district appears to have been ruled by a Rahtor prince connected with the Kanauj dynasty, and who lived at the fort of Rátágarh near Jaunpur. He was of course subject to the Musalmán sovereigns.

In 1360 Firoz Toghak returning from an expedition in Bengal encamped at Jaunpur, and being struck with the site determined to found a city on it. He remained there six months, demolished the temple of Kerarbir and attempted to destroy that of Atal Deo, but was obliged to desist owing to the stout resistance he met with. Firoz at last marched away, leaving a governor at Jaunpur.

After the death of Firoz in 1388 Malik Sarwar Khwája, a eunuch who had become Vazir at Dehli, was sent by Muhammad Toghak to govern the eastern province, which extended from Kanauj to Bahár, and of course included Jaunpur, where he fixed his residence.

In 1394, after Timur's invasion, he made himself independent of the Dehli rulers and assumed the title of Sultan-us-shark. He died in 1400, and was succeeded by his adopted son, Mubarak Khan, who died in 1401, while resisting an attack of the Dehli emperor near Kanauj. His younger brother Ibráhim succeeded him, and handed over Kanauj to the emperor Mahmud Toghak, who was in the power of Ikbál Khán. Each army then retreated to Dehli and Jaunpur till Ikbál's death in 1405, when Ibráhim tried to recover Kanauj, but both armies again returned to their headquarters; he took it, however, in 1407, and then marched on Dehli, but was recalled by an invasion of Jaunpur by Muzaffar Shah of Guzrat. Mahmud Toghak then recaptured Sambhal and recovered the country as far as Kanauj, which remained the frontier of the Jaunpur kingdom till Mahmud Toghak died in 1412. After this Ibráhim remained at peace for 15 years, and built the Atala Masjid. In 1428 he marched against Kálpi, but was attacked by Saiyad Mubárik and the Dehli forces, and fought a great but indecisive battle with them near Etawah. He then returned to Jaunpur. In 1435 he attacked Kálpi again, but hearing that Mubárik was marching on Jaunpur, he returned to that place and lived in peace till 1440, when he died. He was succeeded by his son Mahmúd, who reigned for twenty years. In 1442 he attacked and took Kálpi, and then marching east reduced Chunar and invaded Orissa in 1445. After resting seven years, he, in 1452, marched on Dehli and laid siege to it. Bahlol Lodi, the real ruler under the Emperor Ala-ud-din, returned from the Panjab, raised the siege, and utterly defeated Mahmud, who returned to Jaunpur. He remained quiet till 1456, when Bahlol

marched on Etawah, and he started to oppose him, but died at Shamshabad. By the influence of his widow, the Bibi Raji, Muhammad Shah succeeded him, and Bahlol returned to Dehli. Muhammad put his elder brother Hassan to death, but was himself murdered soon afterwards, and was succeeded by his younger brother Hussen, who concluded a four years' truce with Bahlol, and married Bibi Khonza, daughter of Ala-ud-din, ex-emperor, and still ruler of Budaun. In 1470 Hussen marched on Dehli, was met by Bahlol near Agra, and concluded a three years' truce with him. In 1473 he again advanced westwards, took Etawah, and marched on Dehli. Another truce was concluded, followed by another expedition in 1474.

In 1477 Bibi Raji, and in 1478 Ala-ud-din, died, and Hussen seized Budaun and Sambhal and marched on Dehli. Bahlol again returned from the Panjab to oppose him, and after some fighting concluded a peace by which all the country east of the Ganges was given to Hussen, who retired towards Jaunpur, but was treacherously attacked by Bahlol and defeated. He retreated to Gwalior, and then to Kálpi. Bahlol followed, defeated him there, and again near Kanauj, and Hussen lost his army and his kingdom. Bahlol advanced on Jaunpur and took it, but allowed Hussen to reside there and finish the great mosque.

The Sharki dynasty of Jaunpur which ruled the greater part of Hindustan therefore lasted from 1394 to 1478, or 84 years, under six sovereigns. Bahlol appointed Mubarik Khan Loháni governor of Jaunpur and retired to Budaun; but Mubarik soon rebelled, and Bahlol marched back, expelled him, and appointed his own eldest son Barbik as viceroy of Jaunpur. Hussen was banished to Chunar. Bahlol died in 1489, and was succeeded by a younger son, Sikandar Lodi, against whom Barbik rebelled. Sikandar defeated him, but restored him to his government as a check on Hussen, who was still in arms in Bahár. In 1492 there was another serious revolt in Jaunpur, and Sikandar had to return from Dehli, and finally deposed Barbik and appointed Jamál Khan governor. In 1494 Hussen advanced from Bahár against Sikandar, but was defeated near Benares, and fled to Gaur, where he died in 1495. Sikandar returned to Jaunpur and destroyed all the palaces and monuments of the Sharki dynasty. Sikandar Lodi died in 1517, and was succeeded by Ibráhim, his eldest son, while Jalál, the younger, was made governor of Jaunpur: he soon rebelled, but was defeated and put to death, and Bahádur Khan Loháni appointed in his place. When Ibráhim was defeated and killed at Pánipat by Bábar in 1526, and the Lodi dynasty brought to an end, Bahádur Khan asserted his independence, and for a short time Jaunpur became a kingdom

again, but as soon as Agra and Dehli had been taken Bábar sent his son Humaiun eastwards, and the latter recovered Jaunpur and Bahár. Jaunpur therefore ceased to have a separate existence from 1526, and became incorporated in the Moghal empire. In 1536 Humaiun marched again to Jaunpur to quell a rebellion of the Afghans ; this he did, but in 1539 he was totally defeated at Baksar by Shir Shah, who then became master of all the country east of Agra. He appointed his son Adil Khan viceroy of Jaunpur. Humaiun regained his Indian empire in 1555, and died in 1556. Akbar appointed Ali Kuli Khan governor of Jaunpur in 1558, and Ali successfully repulsed an invasion from the Bengal Afghans, but he refused to pay tribute to Akbar, and after a struggle lasting from 1563 to 1567 he was defeated and slain. Akbar then appointed Mumzim Khan, who was the last viceroy of Jaunpur, for when the new city and fort of Allahabad were built by Akbar in 1575 the viceroy of the eastern provinces removed there, and Jaunpur was governed by a Názim. Mumzim Khán governed for many years and built the famous bridge over the Gumti at Jaunpur. Nothing worthy of note occurred in connection with Jaunpur till 1722, when it was transferred with Benares, Gházipur, and Chunár from the viceroyalty of Allahabad and the direct rule of the Dehli empire to the sway of the Nawáb Vazir of Oudh, then Saádat Khan. The latter entrusted them to Mir Rustam Ali, whose favourite Mansa Ram supplanted his master, and was at length able to procure for his son Balwant Singh these districts with the title of Rája of Benares. In 1750, when the Rohilla leader, Saíd Ahmad Bangash, defeated the Vazir Saádat Khan, he appointed his own kinsman, Zama Khan, to be governor of the Benares province. He resided in the fort at Jaunpur, but was finally expelled by Rájá Chait Singh of Benares. The Nawáb Vazir, however, kept the fort, which was not handed over to Chait Singh till the English gave it him in 1777.

After the battle of Buxar in 1765 the district passed temporarily to the English, but was restored when the treaty was annulled. In 1770 there were great riots at Jaunpur, and in 1775 it passed finally to the English by the treaty of Lucknow. In 1774 occurred the great flood in the Gumti, the highest ever known till that of 1871 eclipsed it. In 1788 Jaunpur was visited by Mr. Jonathan Duncan, the Resident of Benares, who reported it to be decaying and impoverished. He appointed a native magistrate and judge on Rs. 450 a month, and from this time the district was governed directly under English superintendence, which it had not been up to then, as in 1776 the Resident had refused to interfere in some great riots between the Hindus and Musalmáns, and had referred them to Chait Sing.

In 1857 the district remained quiet till June 5th, when the news of the destruction of the Sikhs at Benares reached Jaunpur. The treasury guard which belonged to the same Ludiána regiment then mutinied and shot their own officers, and Mr. Cuppage, the joint magistrate. They finally went off to Lucknow without molesting the rest of the Europeans, who escaped to Passewah factory, and were thence escorted into Benares by a party of volunteers on June 9th.

After this the district remained in complete anarchy till the arrival of the Gurkha force from Azamgarh on September 8th. The civil officials then returned to Jaunpur and the police stations were re-established, but the north and west of the district remained in rebellion. On the 27th September a force was sent out to Mobírikpur, where Irádat Jahan had established himself and had assumed the title of Naib Názim of Jaunpur. He was defeated, taken, and hanged. On the 19th October the force again marched out and attacked Hassan Yar at Singramau. He was defeated, and fled to Mehndi Hassan at Hassanpur; the latter styled himself Názim of Jaunpur, and the two rebels then advanced to near Singramau, but were completely defeated and routed by the force of Gurkhas on the 30th October.

Colonel Longden advanced with the force to Azamgarh, and returned on the 22nd November to Singramau. Mehndi Hassan and the other rebel leaders had by this time assembled a force of 16,000 men, and our army was compelled to fall back on Jaunpur. The Tigra tahsil, which had hitherto held out, fell into the hands of the rebels, and most of the district was lost again. It remained so till January, 1858, when General Franks collected his force to march into Oudh. He left Jaunpur on 19th February, and Sir E. Lugard defeated and dispersed the remaining rebels in the north and west of the district. In May the rebel Jurhi Singh made a raid on Machhlisahr, but was defeated by the people themselves, and after this no more serious disturbance of order took place than the gang robberies of the dacoit leaders Drígpál Singh and Sangrám Singh.

25. *Administration.*—The district of Jaunpur formed part of the Benares province under the Oudh Government, and was formerly included in the Benares division, but was transferred to that of Allahabad in June, 1865, and now forms the most north-easterly district in it. Jaunpur was the seat of a civil and sessions judgeship up to 1875, when the judgeship was abolished and the district placed under the judges of Mirzapur and Benares with concurrent jurisdiction. Since then entire jurisdiction has been given to the judge of Benares.

(a.) *Criminal and Revenue.*—The ordinary staff of the district consists of a magistrate and collector, a joint or assistant magistrate, and two

uncovenanted deputy magistrates and collectors. There are also 5 tahsildárs or sub-magistrates and sub-collectors, and 7 special magistrates with local powers. The magistrate and joint or assistant magistrate are Europeans, the rest are natives.

The magistrate, joint magistrate, and one deputy magistrate have 1st class powers, the other deputy magistrate either 1st or 2nd, and the sub-magistrates and special magistrates either 2nd or 3rd class powers. Besides the above, there are an inspector of customs, a district superintendent of police, and a civil surgeon, who all have certain criminal or revenue powers.

(b.) *Civil.*—There is a sub-judge subordinate to the judge of Benares and two munsifs or primary civil courts, one of the city, and the other of the parganah. The former has jurisdiction over the part of the district north of the river Gumti, the latter over that part which is south of the river. In 1875 the total cost to the State of these civil courts was £2,541, and the amount realized by stamps and court fees was £4,104. The number of cases decided by each class of courts was—

Civil courts	2,313
Criminal courts	1,956
Revenue courts	3,497

The average value of property under litigation was £23.

(c.) In the year 1875 the total strength of the district regular police force was 590. This number consisted of one district superintendent, 86 officers under the rank of inspector, 14 mounted and 489 foot constables; the cost of maintaining this force was £7,036. The total strength of the police is one man to every 2·63 square miles, and one man to every 1,738 persons in the total population. The cost of maintenance is equal to £4·5 per square mile, or 1·6d. per head of the population.

(d.) *Jails.*—There are at Jaunpur two places of confinement for prisoners: (1) the district jail, and (2) the magistrate's lock-up.

(1.) The district jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 413 prisoners, of whom 356 were male and 58 female.

It is under the charge of the civil surgeon, who has under him a jailor and 31 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 33.

The average outturn of labour was Rs. 3 per head.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 1,318.

The rate of mortality was 4·88 per cent. of average strength.

(2.) The lock-up contained in 1875 a daily average of 21 under-trial prisoners.

(e.) *Postal and Telegraph.*—There are 15 imperial and 8 district post-offices in Jaunpur, and in 1876 there were 22 letters per head of population and 26·44 letters per educated man.

There are six telegraph offices at the railway stations of Jalálganj, Jaunpur civil station, Jaunpur city, Marai, Kheta Sarai, and Sháhganj.

26. *Revenue and Finance.*—The district local funds amounted in 1875 to £21,117, and the expenditure to £14,875.

There is only one municipality—Jaunpur; of this the receipts and expenditure were as follows in 1875:—

Municipality.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Incidence of taxation per head.
	£	£	Rs. a. p.
Jaunpur	2,071	1,921	0 6 2

The whole amount of revenue raised in the district, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, in 1876 was £162,472, or on a population of 1,066,904¹ an incidence per head of 3·04 shillings; out of this £24,540, or 15·1 per cent. of the total receipts, was returned to the district in payment for its administration.

27. *Medical statistics.*—There are two dispensaries in the district, at Jaunpur and Machhishahr. During the year 1876, 10,391 persons were treated at these dispensaries; of these 261 were in-door and 10,130 out-door patients. The total receipts were £338, and the charges for establishment £258.

The total number of deaths in the year 1875 was 18,332, or 17·86 per 1,000 of the population. The mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 for the previous six years was 16·73, and the total number of deaths in the six years preceding 1876 was 108,562 persons. The number of persons vaccinated was 9,751, and 7,455 were successful cases.

28. *Education.*—There were 203 schools in the district in 1875 with 7,570 scholars, which gives an average area of 7·66 square miles for each school and a percentage of 73 scholars on the total population.

Education is under the supervision of the inspector of the third or Benares circle. A zila school was established at Jaunpur in 1872 more for teaching Oriental languages than English, and there is a large Arabic and Persian school supported by a religious endowment. There are seven female schools. The total expenditure on education was £3,046, out of which £713 was paid from provincial and £2,333 from local sources.

¹ Corrected to 1876.

29. *Fairs and chief towns.*—There are only two towns in the district which have a population of above 5,000 persons ; these are—

(1.) Jaunpur, the capital of the district and of the ancient kingdom of Jaunpur, which at one time extended from Budan and Etawah to Bahar. It is situated on the left or northern bank of the Gumti river, about 15 miles above its junction with the Sai, and in the middle of the Jaunpur parganah; it is within seven miles of the eastern border of the present Jaunpur district, and is at about the centre of a line drawn from north to south of it. It has a population of 23,327, of whom 12,369 are Hindús and 10,949 Musalmáns. Its municipal income is £2,200 and its rate of taxation Rs. 0-15-1 per head ; it occupies 860 square acres, and has 27 persons per acre.

(2.) Machhishahr is the chief town of the sub-collectorate of that name ; it is situated at the east side of the tahsili and in the centre of parganah Ghiswa. It is seven miles south of the Sai and two miles north of the Pilli ; it has a population of 8,715, of whom 3,932 are Hindús and 4,783 Musalmáns. It has an income of £221 and a taxation of Rs. 0-4-1 per head. Its area is 157 square acres, and it has 55 persons per acre.

The chief fairs in the district are :—

Parganah.	Village.	Date.	No. of persons.
Jaunpur	... Pachhatiya	... 1st November	... 6,000
Mariáhu	... Mariáhu	... 25th September	... 20,000
Ditto	... Ditto	... 20th May	... 6,000
Ghiswa	... Ghiswa	... 25th September	... 7,000
Garwára	... Karchuli	... 13th March	... 25,000
Ditto	... Sujánanj	... 25th September	... 15,000
Mungra	... Badshahpur	... Ditto	... 6,000
Darisapár	... Gobrsha	... 1st November	... 10,000

30. *Archæology.*—The most important of the ancient buildings and remains which abound in Jaunpur are—

(1.) The fort of Firoz, an irregular quadrangle on the north bank of the Gumti, formed by a stone wall built round an artificial earthen mound. It was chiefly constructed from the ruined temples of Buddhistic or Brahmanical origin, and carved stones taken from them abound in the walls. The towers and the last remaining building in the fort were blown up after the mutiny in 1859, and nothing now remains but the walls. Its date is about 1360.

(2.) The hammams or baths of Ibráhim, constructed about 1420.

(3.) The Atala Masjid or mosque, built by Ibráhim and finished in December, 1418. It consisted of a square, 51 yards by 55 yards, with a mosque on the western side, but there is now nothing left but a rich screen flanked by two ragged pinnacles. It was built on the site of a temple erected by Rája Jaichand in

1359, and the materials of the old temple were used for the mosque. Firoz attempted to destroy the temple, but was compelled by the resistance of the Hindús to desist. Ibráhim, however, completely destroyed it and built his mosque on its site.

(4.) The mosque Dariba or Khális Mukhlis, built, by Mallik Khális and Mallik Mukhlis, governors of Jaunpur in Ibráhim's reign, shortly before the Atala Masjid was constructed. It consists of a domed hall and two wings, the dome masked by a low fa çade of the peculiar Jaunpur type.

(5.) The Jinjiri Masjid, built by Ibráhim; of this nothing remains but the great piers flanking a screen of much beauty. It occupies part of the west side of a large court, and is quarter of a mile from the city.

(6.) The Lál Darwaza mosque, which was built by Bibi Raji, the queen of Mahmud, about 1450, and is still in good preservation, with cloisters and gates.

(7.) The Jama Masjid or great mosque of Hussen, completed after his fall in 1478. The mosque occupies the west side of a terrace, and on each of the other sides there is a domed gateway which gives access to a quadrangle 70 yards square and surrounded by a colonnade in two storeys. The dome is 40 feet in diameter.

(8.) The great bridge over the Gumti, built by Mumzim Khan in 1569-73. It is 712 feet long and has four arches of large span in the centre, with six smaller ones on each side. It is supposed to have cost £300,000.

MIRZAPUR.

MIRZAPUR.

A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. *Position and area.*—The district of Mirzapur—bounded on the north by the districts of Jaunpur and Benares, on the east by the Bengal districts of Shahábad, Bahár, and Palamau, on the south by the Bengal district of Sir-gujah, and on the west by the territories of the Mahárájá of Rewah and the district of Allahabad—lies between $23^{\circ} 51' 30''$ and $25^{\circ} 31' 0''$ north latitude, and between $82^{\circ} 9' 15''$ and $83^{\circ} 36' 0''$ east longitude, and contains an area of 5,217 square miles, and a population of 1,015,826 persons, or 195 to the square mile.

2. *Subdivisions.*—The district is divided into three tahsíls or sub-collectories and twelve parganahs, as follows, from south to north :—

Tahsíl.	Parganah.	Revenue, 1876.
1. Robertsganj	Barhar Bijegarh Agori Singrauli Bhagwat Kariat Sikhar Ahraurah Saktisgarh Haveli Chunar Búeli Tappa Upraudh D. Chaurasi D. Chaurih D. Kon Majhwa Bhadohi Kera Mangror	£ 4,919 1,435 2 Revenue free. 3,828 5,748 1,698 1,392 5,421 10,570 5,566 9,821 7,979 3,907 4,897 17,320 Revenue free.
2. Chunar	...	
3. Mirzapur	...	
4. Chakia and Konrh	...	
	Total	84,503

3. *Physical geography and boundaries.*—The district of Mirzapur is the most extensive in the North-Western Provinces, and stretches from the Jaunpur border, 18 miles north of the Ganges, to the Singrauli border, 84 miles south of the Ganges, while it has an average width of 52 miles. It is naturally divided

into three parts by the two mountain ranges of the Vindhya and the Kaimur. The part north of the Vindhya may be called (1) the Ganges valley; the part between the Vindhya and the Kaimur ranges may be named (2) the central plateau; and the portion south of the Kaimur may be called (3) the valley of the Sone and its tributaries.

(1) The Ganges valley is divided by the river Ganges into two portions, of which the southern is nearly twice as large as the northern.

(a.)—The northern contains the parganah of Bhadohi and the tappahs of Majhwa and Kone. It is about 24 miles from east to west, by 16 from north to south, or 384 square miles in extent, and is a purely alluvial and perfectly level plain.

(b.)—The southern part is the tract between the river Ganges and the Vindhyan range, to which it gradually slopes upwards from the river's bed. It is about 60 miles long, and of an average breadth of 10 miles, or altogether about 600 square miles in extent. The northern portion of it is generally a level alluvial plain, but at Kantit and Chunár spurs of the Vindhyan range come right down to the river's edge; and the southern portion of this tract is hilly and rugged with the projections and ravines of the mountains.

(2) The central plateau covers the whole of the central portion of the district from where the Vindhya overhangs the Ganges valley in the north, to where the Kaimur range overhangs the valley of the Sone in the south. The breadth of this table-land varies from 20 to 30 miles, and it is about 70 miles in length, so that it covers an area of about 1,750 square miles: its elevation varies from 300 to 500 feet above the plain, and from 600 to 800 feet above the sea.

It has no large rivers within it, but the Béland rises on the borders of parganah Bijegarh, and flows westward throughout the length of parganahs Barhar and Kantit; while the Karmnása rises in the south-east of parganah Bijegarh, and flows north through it and Naugarh, though it does not become a considerable river till it penetrates the Vindhya, and debouches into the Gangetic plain in parganah Mangror.

(3) The valley of the Sone and its tributaries. This tract forms the southernmost portion of the district, and may be divided into (1) the valley of the Sone proper, (2) the valley of its tributaries, the Réhand and the Kanhar, and (3) the basin of Singrauli in the extreme south.

The whole tract stretches from the Kaimur range in the north to the southern border of the district, which is formed by the rivers Baran and Pángan, and is about 45 miles in length by 40 in breadth, so that it covers an area of about 1,800 square miles.

(a.)—The valley of the Sone proper is a strip of land of about 4 miles on either side of the river, stretching from the Kaimur range to the hills of parganah Agori, and about 40 miles long; the land gradually slopes up from the bed of the river to either range of hills.

(b.)—South of the last tract, and running at right angles to the Sone from south to north, are the two rivers Réhand and Kanhar, whose valleys form the central portion of this third division of the district. The Réhand enters in the south-west, and the Kanhar in the south-east corner of the district, and they traverse nearly at right angles the ranges of hills which run east and west in parganahs Agori and Singrauli: each river has of course a valley of its own, and ridges of hills extend between them due southwards from the Sone.

(c.)—The Singrauli basin is a level tract of country in the southern part of parganah Singrauli, between the Rahind and the Pángan, and is slightly below the level of the surrounding country.

The valley of the Ganges is of course by far the most productive part of the district; the soil is very fertile and cultivated throughout: the whole valley lies below the level of the central plateau further south, and is flat, except where, as at Chunár, the Vindhya send out long spurs, which at the fort rise into a sandstone rock of considerable height; these are connected with the low sandstone range which runs parallel to the Vindhya, between them and the Ganges, and which are here called the Bindáchal range.

The Vindhya approached close to the Ganges at both Bindháchal and Chunár, where the perpendicular ascent to the top of the ghauts varies from 200 to 300 feet. From this point there is a gradual rise southwards to the crest of the Kaimurs, whence there is a sudden and abrupt descent of 400 to 500 feet into the Sone valley beneath.

The Kaimurs are much more rugged and imposing in appearance than the Vindhya, and also exceed them considerably in elevation here.

4. *Rivers.*—The chief rivers of the district are (1) the Ganges, (2) the Sone, (3) the Karmnása, (4) the Beland, (5) the Kanhar, and (6) the Réhand.

(1) The Ganges touches the district first in longitude $82^{\circ} 16'$ at Karaundhia in parganah Bhadoli; it then makes a great sweep of 20 miles to the south, and comes back to Baripur, only 3 miles east of Karaundhia. From Baripur to Chunár it makes three curves to the south, each increasing in size, but none so abrupt as the above or Chhachua one; the second is from Baripur to Gora Khás and back to near Gopiganj, about 11 miles; the third is from a little west of Gopiganj down to Mirzapur, and back to a point 2 miles south of

Mahárajganj, about 20 miles ; and the fourth is from this point down to Chunár, and back to a point 2 miles north of Sultanpur, about 26 miles.

In each case the river curves gradually southward and returns with an abrupt bend to the north from its lowest point, and in each case at this lowest point there is a town of some importance. In all four cases the river returns to the same general line of course in about $25^{\circ} 12'$, latitude, and at the end of the fourth curve it runs for 6 miles due east till it leaves the district near Rahlupur, 3 miles south of Benares. Its total course in the district is about 85 miles.

Mirzapur and Chunar are the only two places of importance situated on the Ganges in this district ; the former is in $82^{\circ} 37'$, and the latter in $82^{\circ} 56'$ east longitude : they are both on the right or southern bank. This bank is composed of beds of kankar which are subject to considerable erosive action. The left bank, which is purely alluvial, slopes down to the river with a gradual incline, which is highly cultivated to the water's edge. Sand banks are often formed, and, owing to the constant shifting of the river channel, navigation is difficult and tedious. The river rises from 38 to 40 feet in the rains, but in 1861 it attained the height of 52 feet, and in 1875 of 55 feet above low water-mark. During the rains numerous streams descend from the Vindhyan range, and crossing the southern valley fall into the Ganges ; but they are all insignificant, and dry up in the cold and hot weather, except the Jhargu, which, rising near Saktisgarh, flows through parganahs Bhagwat and Chunár, and arriving within a mile of the Ganges near that town, turns abruptly north-eastward, and running parallel to the Ganges for 9 miles falls into it at Bagherípur, 5 miles west of Rahlupur. The principal ferries are at Bindáchal, Mirzapur (two), Bhatauli (on Benares road), Neurhia (on Mábárajganj road), and Baluaghút (at Chunár).

(2) The Sone (Són) enters this district from Rewah territory at the north-west corner of parganah Agori, and running right across the north of the parganah, leaves the district at the north-east corner of the same parganah after a course of about 50 miles. It keeps almost in a straight line under the Kaimur range, and its valley is bounded on the south by other hills running parallel to them. It therefore receives no affluents on its northern bank, but on the southern the two large rivers the Réhand and the Kanhar join it. It has no towns of importance on it, Agori, which is near its junction with the Réhand, being only a village. It is navigable during the rainy season, and many rafts of wood and bamboos are sent down it to Dinapur near its mouth. Its bed is composed of an indurated argillaceous sandstone.

(3) The Karmnásá rises in the Kaimur range, in Rhotas of the Shahabad district, within 3 miles of the bed of the Sone. It runs 16 miles in a north-

westerly direction, and then enters the Mirzapur district at Harbhog in longitude $83^{\circ} 34'$. It then flows 13 miles due west to Silhat, and there turns north, in which direction it flows 18 miles, passing Naugarh, and then again coming back to the eastern border of the district, which it forms for 8 miles due north. It next flows 8 miles north-west to near Magror, and then 10 miles due north to Lataun, where it leaves the district. In this course of 57 miles in all it passes through parganahs Bijegarh, Naugarh, and Kera Mangror. It passes through the Vindhya range a little south of Mangror, where it takes its last bend to the north.

(4) The Beland rises in the Jasauli spur of the Kaimurs close to Silhat on the Karmaná : it flows for 36 miles in a westerly direction through parganahs Bijegarh and Barhar till it reaches Ghoráwal : thence it turns south-west for 14 miles, running parallel to the Kaimurs and the Sone, and then flows north for 11 miles to near Dholu, where it enters the Kantit parganah ; from this point it flows in a generally north-westerly direction for 24 miles, till it leaves the district at Laen on the western border : its whole course in the district is about 85 miles.

(5) The Kanhar forms the boundary between Palamau and Sirgujah, and enters this district near Barkhura in parganah Singrauli ; it is joined almost immediately after this by its only large tributary the Pángan, and then turns north and flows in that direction for 32 miles through parganahs Singrauli and Agori till it falls into the Sone at Kota. Its tributary the Pángan forms the boundary between the Palamau and Mirzapur districts from the south-east point of the latter for 16 miles to a point within 5 miles of Sundari, where it falls into the Kanhar.

(6) The Rehand rises far away to the south in Sirgujah, and enters the district at the south-west point of parganah Singrauli near Saipur, and flows north-west past Singhpur for 22 miles to Labehri waterfall, where it turns due north and runs 28 miles further, till it falls into the Sone 2 miles east of Agori khas. It has no large tributaries, but the Bichi and Ujiran Naddis fall into it a little below and above Singhpur respectively. They rise in the extreme south of the district and drain the basin of Singrauli.

5. *Lakes.* In the cis-Ganges or southern portion of the district there are no real lakes, *i.e.*, permanent sheets of water, and the jhils or temporary pools are small, few, and of no importance. The country is so uneven and broken, and the ravines so numerous and far-extending, that all water falling on the surface at once drains off into the rivers and is carried away.

In the trans-Ganges portion there are no real lakes, but there are three considerable jhils in parganah Bhadoi—(1) Tál Samdha, about two miles in breadth, near the eastern boundary ; (2) Tál Baraura and (3) Tál Udra are near the western border. These are not so large as the first, and are nearly dried up in the hot weather.

6. *Forests and waste lands.*—The eastern and more elevated portion of the great central plateau is covered with a thick growth of low jungle, containing here and there trees, such as the palas, sal, ebony, bair, and mimosa. From these jungles small timber and firewood is supplied to Benares, Mirzapur, and the Ganges villages. The Sone valley is also extensively covered with forest, and the scenery is very beautiful; deep and thickly wooded gorges descending from the mountainous uplands on the north penetrate far into the river valley below, and contrast strongly with its flat and tame appearance.

South of the Sone in parganahs Agori and Singrauli the land is nearly all waste ; the face of the country is broken up by interrupted spurs of hills, running more or less parallel to the Kaimur range. West of the Rehand river these hills belong to the clay-slate formation, and extend from east to west for a distance of about 80 square miles. Its strata are generally vertical, or dip about 80° to the north, and, owing to the shallowness and poverty of the soil, the country is sterile, and but scantily clothed with stunted trees and káns grass.

7. *Geology.*—Mirzapur is the only district of the North-Western Provinces that is to a large extent situated within the rock area of the peninsula ; but here several of the principal rock series of India are fairly represented.

In Singrauli, on the south, there is a large patch of metamorphic rocks, including several varieties of gneiss, crystalline schists, quartzite, and limestone.

In the north-west corner of Singrauli, over about 25 square miles, the gneiss is covered by strata of the Gondwána series, represented by the two bottom and most widely distributed groups, the Talchir with its glacial boulder-bed, and the Damuda with its coal. For many years coal used to be carried on pack-bullocks from the Kota mine in Singrauli to Mirzapur, about 150 miles of very rough road, for the use of steamers on the Ganges. This small area is the north-east extremity of the south Rewa basin, which is the largest spread of the Gondwána rocks in India.

Between Singrauli and the Sone there is a broad band of submetamorphic rocks. At contact with the gneiss there is often a decided transition of the crystallizing action. There seem to be two divisions of these rocks, a lower one, composed chiefly of argillaceous schists and slates ; and an upper, in which contemporary trap and quartz breccia are conspicuous.

Along the Sone valley the lower Vindhyan deposits rest upon the upturned edges of the foregoing rocks. The well known Rhotas limestone is the top member of the lower Vindhyan series. Below it there are several other bands of limestone, shales, sandstones, and some peculiar trappoid beds.

The scarp of the plateau of upper Vindhyan rocks is a very marked feature all along the north side of the Sone valley close to the river. The plateau here is narrow, not far from its eastern extremity, and is entirely formed of the bottom group of the series, the Kaimur (Kymore) sandstone, from which the famous chunam and Mirzapur building stone is derived, from quarries along the north face of the plateau, at the edge of the alluvial plain of the Ganges.

The whole of the district north of the Vindhyan range is of purely alluvial origin, the trans-Ganges portion (Bhadohi) being very rich and fertile.

The central plateau from the Vindhya to the Kaimur range may be generally described as belonging to the old red sandstone formation.

North and north-west of the basin of Singrauli the country is widely traversed by granitic and trappean rocks, quartz, felspar, serpentine, and syenite. At Undar, running south, commence the sandstone hills which form the upper layer of the coal fields. To the east of this formation in the vicinity of the village of Kotah occur several bands of coal which extend probably for 20 square miles in all over this part of the district.

The basin of Singrauli proper is alluvial, and the lower part is a black loam : in the upper portions, where part of the surface soil has been washed off, the rocks are denuded, and masses of various kinds appear embedded in sandstone or in hardened clay. They seem to have drifted from the south-west, and vary considerably in size. The country lying east of the Rehand is traversed by gneiss, mica-schist, granite, and other igneous rocks. The Vindhyan range belongs to the sandstone formation, and is horizontally stratified ; micaeuous and schistose towards the base, and fine grained towards the summits, where the soil is of a lighter colour. The Kaimurs are more rugged and imposing, and are from 400 to 500 feet in height.

8. *Climate.*—The climate is slightly warmer and damper than that of districts further north and west. The hilly portion of the district to the south is exceedingly hot, and Chunár has also got an unenviable reputation in this respect. The rainy season begins about the third week in June and continues till the end of September. October and half November are warm dry months, and then the cold season follows till about the 15th March, when the hot weather sets in and continues till the rains fall. The rainfall is rather in excess of

most north-west districts, probably owing to the forests and ranges of hills with which the district abounds.

The average total rainfall was 42·7 inches for the 11 years from 1860 to 1871; during this period the maximum was 54·1 inches in 1870-71, and the minimum was 25·5 in 1864-65.

9. *Minerals and trees.*—Stone is extensively quarried both for building and for lime-burning in the Vindhya range. The most productive and valuable quarries are near Bindháchal and Chunár. The price of stone varies from £1 to £1-4-0 in the rough for 100 square feet.

Lime is made from both stone and kankar : the former is worth £2-10-0 per 100 mans, and the latter £1-10-0. The limestones towards the south of the district vary from a pure carbonate of lime to pure dolomite. In some cases the two rocks are interstratified. The dolomitic limestones are all associated with more or less serpentine ; and it may be assumed that where the latter mineral is present in any quantity the limestone is magnesian. In the only case hitherto observed in which serpentine is actually interbanded with the limestone the latter is true dolomite. In two patches of gneiss east of Koelkat, occurring as in-liers in the Talchirs, limestone is very abundantly met with. It is a white crystalline rock, varying from a saccharine variety to one with cleavage faces of a quarter of an inch across. The band to east of Raondi contains a very large amount of Wollastonite. In fact the rock is entirely composed of this mineral, in places constituting there a "Wollastonite schist," which, from its greater resistance to atmospheric influences, often stands up above the general surface in a low jagged ridge. The mineral has a greyish-white colour and bright pearly lustre. Tremolite is very abundant in the limestone of the Béché Naddi.

The thickness of the bed of corundum between Pipra and Kadopáni cannot be determined with any degree of accuracy from the amount of débris lying about, but at a rough guess is about 30 yards at the quarries, where it appears to be thickest, and it may be considerably more. It runs about east-north-east and west-south-west, the bedding being vertical or at a high angle. At the west end of the long low hillock which marks the position of the mineral, porphyritic gneiss and white quartz schist are seen within ten yards of each other, with corundum in the space between. From this to the Réhand, some 300 yards, is obscured by clay, and no trace of the corundum is to be found in the river : east of the quarries again, the bed can only be followed for a short distance, the entire length visible from west to east being about half a mile.

The corundum, where weathered, much resembles fine-grained hornblenda rock in a similar state, and might be easily overlooked. It is of intense hardness.

Pluvial mechanical erosion would apparently act very slowly indeed on it, in comparison with the softer rocks on either side, and the absence of secondary minerals in considerable quantity does not point to important chemical alteration. The quarrymen are paid at the rate of one rupee per $31\frac{1}{2}$ kacha mans raised, but the mineral is only worked now and then when a quantity is ordered by the mahájans who deal in it. Fires are lighted against the large masses into which the corundum is divided by jointing, and when they have been rendered somewhat more brittle by this means, they are gradually smashed by heaving other pieces at them.

Considering the thickness and length of the bed, it is clear that the supply may be considered inexhaustible. Kyanite and beds of magnetite inter-laminated with granular silicious layers are met with not unfrequently, more noticeably in the crystalline in-lies near Koelkat, also near Gairar and south of Kadopáni; none of these, however, are as rich in iron as the magnetic band at Korchi in Mirzapur. Magnetic sand very frequently accompanies other arena-ceous materials in the beds of watercourses, in some cases probably in sufficient abundance to repay collection by the native iron smelters.

Trees.—The chief fruit trees are the mango (*mangifera Indica*), mahua (*Bassia latifolia*), jackfruit or kathal (*artocarpus integrifolia*), jáman (*zyzygium jambolanum*), ber (*zizyphus jujuba*), guava or amrúd (*psidium guava*), plaintain or kelá (*musa sapicutium*), gular (*ficus racemosa*), aonla (*emblica officinalis*), tamarind or imli (*tamarindus Indica*), pomegranate or anár (*punica granatum*), sharifa or custard-apple (*anona squamosa*), mulberry or shahtút (*morus*), lime or nimbu (*citrus bergamia*), khirni (*mimusops kaki*), bel (*œgle marmelos*), and kait (*feronia elephantum*). The timber trees are the ordinary ones of a Doab district (see "Agra" and "Allahabad.")

10. *Animals, birds, and fish.*—The following wild animals are found in the district—tiger, leopard, panther, bear, hyæna, wolf, wild dog, wild boar, jackal, stag (*sambar*), spotted deer (*chital*), blue bull, antelope, and ravine deer. Tigers, leopards, and bears are quite common in the jungles to the south of the district. In 1872 one hundred and eighty-seven persons died from wild animals and snakes, and £9-6-0 was paid in rewards for destruction of wild animals. There are no particular breeds of cattle in the district: the price of bullocks ranges from £1 to £3, of cows from 10s. to £1, and of buffaloes from £1 to £3. Horses are not bred in the district, and are only used to a limited extent in the northern parts.

The following fish are caught in the streams and rivers: rahti, tengra, bachua, pariási, bám (eel), chilwa, and mahásir.

11. *Population.*—In the census of 1872 there were 5,217 square miles in the Mirzapur district, with 4,104 mauzas, 219,059 houses, and a population of 1,015,826. There were 195 persons and 8 villages to the square mile, 248 persons per village, and 4·8 persons per house. There were 11,063 masonry houses and 207,996 mud ones. Of the sexes there were 520,496 males and 494,797 females.

The numbers of each religion and sex were as follows :—

Hindús	... { Males	486,617
... { Females	<u>463,027</u>
			Total	...	<u>949,644</u>
Musalmáns	... { Males	38,427
... { Females	<u>31,472</u>
			Total	...	<u>64,899</u>
Christians	... { Males	452
... { Females	<u>298</u>
			Total	...	<u>750</u>

The percentages of each sex and religion on the total population were as follows :—

Hindús 93·5	Males 51·3
Musalmáns 6·5	Females 48·7

There were 2·3 persons per cent. above 60 years of age, and 23,936 males able to read and write. The total agricultural population was 529,683. The area of assessed land was 3,048 square miles, of which 1,237 were uncultivable, 497 cultivable, and 1,312 cultivated ; and there were besides 364 square miles uncultivable unassessed land.

The amount of land revenue was £84,977, the rates and cesses on land £4,112, and the incidence of the land revenue per culturable acre was Rs. 0-11-8. The percentage of agricultural on total population was 52·1.

The numbers of the chief Hindú castes and Musalmán tribes were as follows :—

Hindús	... { Brahmans	161,372
	Rajputs	54,868
	Baniahs	26,912
	Ahirs	89,567
	Chamárs	111,752
	Kayaths	11,756
	Kurmis	51,221
Musalmáns	... { Shekhs	34,357
	Saiads	1,209
	Mughals	322
	Patháns	5,651

The numbers of males above 15 in each of the six great classes of occupations were :—

Professional	3,136
Domestic	24,609
Commercial	18,378
Agricultural	187,681
Industrial	23,529
Indefinite	69,474
			Total	...	328,757

There were altogether 4,104 inhabited villages and towns, of which 2,530 contained less than 200 inhabitants; 1,199 less than 500; 302 less than 1,000; 60 less than 2,900; 7 less than 3,000; 3 less than 5,000; 1 less than 10,000; 1 less than 20,000; and 1 above 20,000.

The following figures show the comparative results of the censuses of 1853, 1865, and 1872 :—

Area.—This was 5,152 square miles in 1853, 5,200 in 1865, and 5,217 in 1872: it therefore increased by 48 square miles, or 9 per cent., in the first twelve years, and by 17, or 3 per cent., in the latter seven years, or by 65, or 1·2 per cent. increase in the whole nineteen years, or ·06 per cent. per annum on the whole.

Population.—The total population was 1,104,315 in 1853, 1,055,735 in 1865, and 1,015,826 in 1872: it therefore decreased by 48,580, or 4·6 per cent., from 1853 to 1865, and by 39,909, or 3·9 per cent., from 1865 to 1872, and by 88,489, or 8·7 per cent., in the whole nineteen years from 1853 to 1872. The annual rate of decrease in the first period was ·3, ·55 in the second, and ·45 on the whole. This district therefore decreased steadily and nearly equally in both periods, the decrease amounting altogether to nearly 9 per cent. This is much more than in most districts, even of those which did decrease, and no reason is apparent for it, except the decadence in commercial prosperity of the city of Mirzapur itself.

Sex.—There were of males in 1853, 568,749; in 1865, 543,806; and in 1872, 520,496: they therefore decreased in the first period by 24,943, or 4·5 per cent., and in the second period by 23,310, or 4·4 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 48,253, or 9·2 per cent.

There were of females in 1853, 535,566; in 1865, 511,929; and in 1872, 494,797: they therefore decreased in the first period by 23,637, or 4·6 per cent., and in the second period by 17,132, or 3·4 per cent., while in the whole nineteen years the decrease was 40,769, or 8·2 per cent.

The proportion of males to females was—

1·06 to 1 in 1853.

1·06 „ 1 „ 1865.

1·05 „ 1 „ 1872.

The proportion of the sexes therefore remained the same throughout the whole period.

The males decreased by 4·5 and 4·4, or 9·2 on the whole. The females decreased by 4·6 and 3·4, or 8·2 on the whole. So that the two sexes decreased equally in the first period, while the males decreased 1 per cent. faster than the females in the second, and 1 per cent. faster on the whole.

The annual rates were—

	<i>Decrease per cent.</i>		<i>Increase per cent.</i>	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
In the first period ...	·3	·3
In the second period	·6	·4
In the whole period ...	·4	·4

12. *Religion.*—There were of Hindús in 1853, 1,029,898; in 1865, 985,666; and in 1872, 949,644: they therefore decreased in the first period by 44,232, or 4·5 per cent., and in the second period by 36,022, or 3·8 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 80,254, or 8·4 per cent.

There were of Musalmáns in 1853, 74,417; in 1865, 68,747; and in 1872, 64,899: they therefore decreased in the first period by 5,670, or 8·2 per cent., and in the second period by 3,848, or 5·9 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 9,518, or 14·6 per cent.

The proportion of Hindús to Musalmáns was—

13·83 to 1 in 1853.

14·33 „ 1 „ 1865.

14·47 „ 1 „ 1872.

The proportion of Hindús therefore steadily, though slightly, increased throughout the whole period.

The Hindús decreased in the first period by 4·5 per cent., and in the second period by 3·8 per cent., or 8·4 on the whole. The Musalmáns decreased in the first period by 8·2, and in the second period by 5·9, or 14·6 on the whole. So that the Musalmáns decreased nearly twice as fast as the Hindús in the first period, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ times as fast in the second, or $1\frac{2}{3}$ times as fast on the whole.

The annual rates were :—

	<i>Decrease per cent.</i>		<i>Increase per cent.</i>	
	Hindús.	Musalmáns.	Hindús.	Musalmáns.
In the first period ...	·37	·68
In the second period ...	·54	·84
In the whole period ...	·44	·75

13. *Land Revenue.*—In 1853 the land revenue was Rs. 8,39,732, in 1865 Rs. 8,44,412, in 1872 Rs. 8,49,776 : it therefore increased by Rs. 4,680, or ·5 per cent., in the first period, and in the second by Rs. 5,364, or ·6 per cent., while the total increase on the whole nineteen years was Rs. 10,044, or 1·2 per cent. The increase was therefore ·6 per cent. per annum from 1853 to 1865, ·5 per cent. per annum from 1865 to 1872, and 1·2 per cent. per annum on the whole period from 1853 to 1872.

The increase of 1 per cent. in nineteen years is of course far below the averages of other districts.

Number of mauzas.—This was in 1853, 5,280 ; in 1865, 5,376 ; in 1872, 4,104. The mauzas therefore increased by 96, or 1·8 per cent., from 1853 to 1865, and diminished by 1,272, or 30·9 per cent., from 1865 to 1872 ; the total decrease in the whole nineteen years being 1,176, or 28·6, or 1·4 per annum.

Persons per square mile.—In 1853 there were 214 persons per square mile, in 1865, 203, and in 1872, 195. The density of population therefore decreased by 11 in the first period of twelve years, or by 5·4 per cent., or ·4 per cent. per annum ; it decreased by 8 during the second period of seven years, or by 4·1 per cent., or ·6 per cent. per annum ; and by 19, or 9·7 per cent., or ·5 per cent. per annum in the whole period of nineteen years. This district therefore decreased in density almost exactly as much as Azamgarh did, i.e., about 10 per cent. in the nineteen years. This is the same as the average of the Jhánsi division, but three times that of the Allahabad division.

14. *Town and village population.*—The part of the district which lies in the Ganges valley, north of the Vindhya, is very highly cultivated and thickly populated on both sides of the river, and is like the other districts of the Benares division in all respects, but the part south of the Vindhya, including both the central plateau and the trans-Kaimúr portion of the district, is covered with ravines and forests, and is very sparsely populated. There are only three towns

in the district with over 5,000 inhabitants, *viz.*, Mirzapur, Chunár, and Ahraura, which have a total population of 86,447 ; that of the whole district being 1,015,826, so that only one-thirteenth of the population live in large towns. Of the 4,104 inhabited places in the district 2,530 contain less than 200 persons, so that more than half are mere hamlets and 3,729 contain less than 500, so that more than six-sevenths are small villages. The population south of the Kaimúrs is very rude and uncivilized, and there are in that portion of the district no towns of any importance.

15. *Value of house and furniture.*—The cost of building a house of the best class may be considered to be from £200 upwards, of the 2nd class from £15 to £150, and of the 3rd class from £1 to £10.

A trader's house of the better class contains generally about £50 worth of furniture and utensils of all kinds. Bedsteads, mattrasses, quilts, carpets, and boxes would represent about £30 worth of this, and cooking vessels the remainder.

A well-to-do cultivator owns a few strong boxes and bedsteads and quilts worth about £10, besides cooking vessels worth £5 or £6.

An artizan in middling circumstances possesses one or two mattrasses, bedsteads, and quilts, and some drinking vessels, worth altogether about £3.

A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars, one or two quilts, and perhaps a cot, worth in all 10 shillings to a pound.

Almost all the houses of the poorer classes are built of mud, whereas those tenanted by the wealthier portion of the population in cities, and the landed proprietors in the country, are for the most part constructed of stone. The mud dwellings are wretched and squalid in appearance, though in some instances the signs of comfort and prosperity are by no means absent; while many of the town and suburban residences of the richer class of merchants in and around Mirzapur are large and handsome. Extensive and highly-decorated façades often occur, and richly-carved balconies and door-frames adorn the fronts of the houses. The sandstone from the hills is durable, yet soft and easily worked, and is very suitable for building and ornamentation.

16. *Trades-unions.*—As in other districts, there are no organized trades-unions in the English sense of the word, but the powerful caste pancháyats answer very much the same purpose, though they have a much wider field of action than an English trades-union has.

Goldsmiths, grain-dealers, cloth merchants, and other traders have guilds which regulate their trade-eustonis. In this district pancháyats are very common, and are used to decide all kinds of matters, social and judicial. In

judicial pancháyats the plaintiff and defendant nominate two persons each, and the court nominates the fifth. The social pancháyat consists of a number of members, and is almost a caste gathering: it is self-constituted and has plenary powers over the members of that caste, even to total and final expulsion from the caste. The chaudhri or head of each trade is a sort of guild-master, the post being often hereditary, and being remunerated by fees on all trade transactions.

17. *Village communities.*—The villages in the northern part of this district, as in nearly all in the north-west, may be classified into three kinds, according to the modes in which the land is held and the Government revenue paid:—

Zamindari.—Where the whole of the land belongs to several owners in joint occupation.

Imperfect pattidari.—Where the village is partly held by several owners in joint occupation, and partly by several owners in severalty or separate occupation.

Pattidari.—Where the land has been completely divided among the sharers, and is held by several owners in severalty, but under one tenure as regards the Government.

There is also a fourth kind of mahál or estate called bhaiáchara, where, though it belongs to the 2nd or 3rd class, the rights and interest of each co-sharer are not determined by his ancestral share, but by custom or possession.

18. *Condition of the people.*—Among the Hindús of the district the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the 1st class, or having incomes over £100 a year, £96 to £180; (2) for those in the 2nd class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 a year, about £24 to £60; and (3) for those in the 3rd class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns it would be rather more, as their habits are somewhat more expensive.

As regards diet, though the people fall into three classes—(1) the rich, (2) the middle class, (3) the poor,—yet the ordinary style of dietary is the same for all, *i.e.*, it takes the form of bread and vegetable or pulse; the difference lies in the kind of grain and vegetable selected, and in the flavouring condiments employed in cooking. As a rule, all classes eat twice a day; the rich and middle eat bread twice, *viz.*, between 10 A.M. and noon, and between 7 and 9 P.M.; the poor eat bread once, at noon or in the evening; at the other time they only have parched gram or ground barley (*sattú*). All classes eat rice, and the wealthier also have it cooked with milk, sugar, &c. The latter also eat

sweetmeats, fruits, wheaten and barley bread, dál, fish, goat's flesh, and mutton. The middle classes have bread of wheat and barley, and also of bájra and jowár, and with it dál (of arhar or urd), vegetables, and ghí. The bread of the poor is made of gram or peas, and they use dál (of arhar and mothi) and vegetables with it.

South of the Kaimúrs (except in a few places) the people are very poor, wild, and rustic, and have none of the comforts or appliances of the wealthier inhabitants of the Doáb districts.

19. *Character of the soil.*—The soil in the valley of the Ganges is exceedingly fertile, except where the alluvial plain is broken up by the sandstone rocks which jut out from the Vindhya range.

The central plateau consists, in its more elevated portions, of a stiff red shallow clay, and in the lower parts of a fine black soil of considerable fertility, resembling in many respects the "segar" or cotton soil of Central India. In the southern portions rice, wheat, barley, and gram are cultivated; but the greater part of the northern portion is not fit for anything but the inferior grains.

The country south of the Sone belongs to the clay-slate formation, and, owing to the shallowness and poverty of the soil, it is sterile and but scantily clothed with stunted trees and káns grass: it is only in a few level spots that there is any attempt at cultivation. The basin of Singrauli proper is an alluvial formation, part of which is composed of black loam; in parts the soil is of a superior kind, and the vegetation much richer than in the Sone valley, but often the earth is a cold stiff clay, or a loose sandy soil which produces but a scanty crop, and hardly repays cultivation.

20. *Course of tillage.*—There are two harvests, the kharif or autumn one, and the rabbi or spring one. The kharif crops are sown in June, directly the first rain falls, and are harvested in October and November, and some of the rice in September, or even as early as the end of August. Besides cotton and rice they include bájra, jowár, mot, &c. The rabbi crops are sown in October and November, and reaped in March and April; they consist of wheat, barley, oats, vetch and peas, and dál or arhar. As a rule, spring and autumn crops are not taken off the same land, but sometimes a crop of rice is taken in the autumn, and another crop of some kind in the spring.

Barley is cultivated all over the district, even in the wildest tracts, and is considered the hardiest of all the cereals. In the south of the district the land is prepared from Kuar to Kartik (September to October), when sowing is commenced. In the more fertile northern tracts of the Ganges valley the

ploughing begins in the middle of Bhádon (August), when the soil is thoroughly mixed up by frequent ploughings, and the seed is sown at the end of Kuar and beginning of Kartik. Loamy and slightly sandy soil is generally preferred ; the average rent is from 12 shillings to £3-12-6 an acre, the cost of irrigation is 9 shillings to 12 shillings an acre, and the grain sells at an average price of 50 to 60lbs. the rupee. The barley from the south is brought up to the bazars at Chunár, Ahraura, and Chota Mirzapur.

The average cost of production is £1-16-0 to £6 an acre, and the average produce is about 960 lbs. to an acre.

Wheat is cultivated in the same way, but the average produce per acre is from 640 to 800lbs., while the average market price is 36 to 50lbs. per rupee. Wheat is not so hardy as barley, and is therefore not so frequently grown in the south. Hemp is grown sparingly all over the district in the worst land. It costs little, but is not remunerative, and its cultivation is considered low and degrading, and is only pursued by Ahirs, Kurmis, and Chamárs. When the crop is cut the stalks are pressed under weights for 8 or 10 days in water, they are then dried in the sun, and the fibre is beaten out with mallets or stones.

21. *Years of scarcity.*—The northern part of the district suffered severely in the great famine of 1783, but it has not been seriously affected by any of the great famines of this century ; and even that of 1868-69, which reached most of the districts of the Benares division, was turned from this by a timely fall of rain in September. In 1864 the rain was so scanty as to cause the loss of nearly all the rice crop, and much distress arose from this when in 1865 the rains were again scanty, and most of the rice crop perished. One-fifth of the revenue demand for the year was suspended, and in the following prosperous years most of the cultivators recovered their positions. The south of the district suffered severely in the drought of 1873. Hail and blight often affect the spring harvest, particularly if there is cloudy weather in January, but the Ganges valley on either side of the river is not liable to floods. The rains are, as a rule, so abundant that irrigation is not used for the autumn crops ; but the spring crops require it, and in average years obtain a sufficient supply of water from the numerous tanks and wells.

22. *Communications and trade.* (1) *Railways.*—The East Indian Railway traverses the northern part of the district from east to west, running close to the Ganges throughout its course. It enters the district at Dioria on the eastern border of parganah Bhúeli, and traverses the northern part of that parganah and parganah Bhagwat, having a station at Ahraura road, 11 miles east of Chunár. It then crosses the south of the Chunár parganah, passing south of Chunár and having a station there, and it finally runs right across the north of parganah

Kantit from near Chunár to the west border of the district. In this stretch of 32 miles it has three stations, at Pahári (10 miles east of Mirzapur), at Mirzapur, and at Gaepura (12 miles west of Mirzapur); it does not cross any large streams, and it only approaches the hills at Chunár, Bindáchal, and Bijepur.

(2) *Metalled roads.* (a.)—The Grand Trunk Road enters the district from Benares at Sarai Bábu on the eastern border of parganah Bhadohi, and passing through Mahárájganj, Gopiganj, and Sarai Jagdis, leaves the district at Khurgapur on the west border; its course of 23 miles being in tappa Majhwa and parganah Bhadohi. It has a short branch to Mirzapur from Gopiganj on the north-west. There is also a branch which, leaving the Grand Trunk Road at Ráni Talao in parganah Kaswár, of Benares, passes through pargana Majhwa, and crossing the Ganges at Baraini, enters Mirzapur from the north-east: this is 18 miles long in this district.

(b.) The Great Dekhan Road, at one time the rival of the Grand Trunk Road in importance, but now half-deserted, leaves Mirzapur city at its southern extremity, and runs south-west through parganah Kantit for 24 miles, passing through Lálganj, and crossing the Vindhya at Tárá Ghát.

(c.) The Jaunpur road, leaving the Ganges opposite Mirzapur and going due north through parganah Bhadohi by Ghosia and Bhadohi for 19 miles, till it leaves the district 2 miles north of Bhadohi.

(3.) *Unmetalled roads.* (a.)—The road from Benares, through Rahlupur, Bhúeli, Ahraura, Latifpur, and Robertsganj, which crosses the Kainur range by the Kawai pass and the Sone at Chopan, and passes to the southern boundary and Sirgújah viâ Chopan and Singhpur (or Gaharwargáoñ). This road is about 84 miles long.

(b.) The road from Mirzapur due south, crossing the Vindhya by the Barkacha pass and going viâ Kotwa, Marihán, and Rajgarh to a point near Robertsganj, where it joins the abovementioned road: this is 46 miles in length.

(c.) The road from Marihán to Ghorawal, and on across the Kaimurs by the Kulia pass into the Sone valley, and thence viâ Niwari and Parsoi to Kotah in Singrauli.

(d.) From Chunár to Kachwa on the Grand Trunk Road, passing through parganah Kiriati Sikhar, and crossing the Ganges at Chunár, 12 miles.

(e.) From Chunár to Ahraura through parganahs Chunár, Bhagwat, and Ahraura, 12 miles.

(f.) The road from Benares south of the Ganges through Chunár and Mirzapur to Chanderu on the western border of the district: this is 46 miles long, and passes through all the railway stations except Ahraura. It follows

the course of the Ganges from the eastern border to Pahári station, and then runs due west, only touching the Ganges again at Mirzapur.

(g.) The road from the west of parganah Barhar through Ghorawal, Shahganj, Robertsganj, and Mánchí to the eastern border and Shahabad. This is about 70 miles long.

Trade.—In Mirzapur itself the chief trades are in (1) shellac and lac-dye, (2) brassware, and (3) carpets; in 1872-73, 23,000 maunds of shellac were manufactured and 3,730 maunds of lac-dye, and about 4,000 persons are employed in the trade. In the same year 46,000 maunds of brassware were manufactured, chiefly eating and cooking utensils.

The whole trade of the district may be divided into (I.) river-borne (on the Ganges); (II.) trade with the south; (III.) trade of the cities of Mirzapur and Chunár. (I.) By the river, cotton, salt, castor-oil seed, indigo seed, linseed, and edible grains pass from the west to the east and south. (II.) The trade with the south runs in three principal channels, *viz.*, (1) the great Deccan Road; (2) the road by Silpi Ghát, Ghoráwal, and Mirzapur; and (3) the roads which meet at Robertsganj. (III.) The trade of the city of Mirzapur consists of (a) imports, edible grain, sugar, cloth, metals, fruit, spices, tobacco, lac, salt, and cotton; (b) exports, grain, sugar, ghi, spices, and drugs, tobacco, cloth, copper, iron, shellac and lac-dye.

23. *Money-lending, wages, and prices.*—The rates of interest at present (1877) charged in the district are as follows:—

(a.) In small transactions, when articles are pawned, from 12 to 15 per cent.

(b.) In small transactions, when personal security is given, from 18 to 37 per cent.

(c.) In large transactions, when jewels, &c., are pledged, from 6 to 12 per cent.

(d.) When bankers lend money to bankers on personal security, 6 to 9 per cent.

(e.) When land is mortgaged from 9 to 18 per cent.

The current rate of interest in most transactions, whether small or large, if security is given, is 12 per cent., while in petty agricultural advances it is 24 per cent. The profit from buying estates is 6 to 9 per cent.

The rates of wages are as follows:—

(a.) Coolies and unskilled labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ pence a day.

(b.) Agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 pence a day.

(c.) Bricklayers and carpenters, 6 pence to 2 shillings a day.

Female labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men ; boys of from 12 to 16 get two-thirds of the wages of full-grown men ; boys younger than that and girls from one-half to one-third.

Wages have increased greatly in the last 20 years, as shown in the following table :—

	1850.	1872.
	<i>d.</i>	<i>d.</i>
Bricklayers 3	6
Blacksmiths 1½ to 3	3 to 4½
Labourers 1½	3 to 4

The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were as follows :—

	<i>Number of seers (2lbs.) for a rupee (2s.).</i>			
	1st April.	1st August.	1st December.	Average.
Wheat 26	22	21	23
Rice 13	12	10	11
Jowár 32	28	34	31
Bijra 30	26	32	29
Dál 25	24	22	23

24. *History.*—The district has always formed part of the Benares province, and its history as connected with the fortunes of the Rájas of Benares will be found under that district. To this day the whole of the Bhadohi and Mangror parganahs are the family domains of the Rájas of Benares, and over these they exercise extensive revenue powers.

The history of the district as a district separate from that of Benares is scanty and of little importance. It divides itself chiefly into records of the towns of Mirzapur and Chunár. The ancient history of the Chunár fort is involved in obscurity: its name appears to be derived from “charan”—footsteps; the place was called “Charanagarh” from the footprint of a deity who was supposed to have descended there, and the name was contracted into Chunárgarh. Long after this Bharti Nath, one of the kings of Ujain, a younger brother of the famous Bikramájít, became a religious devotee and retired to the hill of Chunár. Bikramájít sought and found him here, and built him a residence, and then returned to Ujain.

Bharti Nath in time died, and his shrine remains one of the holiest places in India. Later on a Rája, Pirthiráj, took up his abode at Chunár and brought the surrounding district into cultivation. After his death Khair-ud-din Sabuktagin took the country from Pirthiráj’s successor, and a mutilated inscription over the gateway of the fort commemorates its ransom from the hands of a Musalmán invader. Mallik Shaháb-ud-din, a general of Muhammad Shah, took it from a Rája Swámi. Muhammad Shah appointed Sanude (an African)

and a Bahelia, with the title of Hazári, to be governors of the fort, and gave them a jagir of 28 villages called taluka Khair-ud-dinpur, the proceeds of which were to be devoted to the repairs and defence of the fort. This office was retained by the family of Bahelias till the surrender of the fort to the British after the battle of Buxar in 1764. After Shaháb-ud-din took the fort from Rájá Swámi, it was given back to the latter through the intervention of Sairáya Deva, minister of Muhammad Shah, in 1333. Nothing more is known of its history till in 1530 Sher Khan, the Rohilla, obtained possession of the fort by marrying the daughter of Faqr, an independent chief, and the widow of Táj Khan, late governor of Chunár.

While it was in the possession of Sher Khan, Chunár was besieged by the Emperor Humaiun, and taken after a spirited defence of six months in 1532; and again in 1537 during his second campaign against Sher Shah. In 1575 the fort was again taken by the Mughals after a protracted siege, and they then invited Gautams, Kurmis, Musalmáns, and others to settle in the neighbourhood, and when the land became cultivated, they collected rent from them. The cultivation spread till the whole parganah was under culture, and it finally passed into the hands of Rájá Balwant Singh of Benares about 1750 A.D. It was attacked by the British under Major Hector Munro in 1763, but they were repulsed in a night assault, and it was not till the following year, after the battle of Buxar, that it finally passed into their hands.

In 1781, after Warren Hastings had arrested Rájá Chait Singh in his own house in Benares, the former was obliged to flee from Benares, and took refuge in Chunár on the 21st August. He remained there till the end of September, when Chait Singh fled to Gwalior, after a vain resistance to Major Popham's force at Latifpur and Bijegarh. Latifpur was in the middle of the pass through the Vindhya, and was almost impregnable; but Major Popham advanced up the pass from the north, while Major Crabbe made a detour to the south, and both entered together, stormed the fort, and then advanced on Bijegarh. The earliest occupation of the district appears to have been by Brahmans; for in Kantit, where about an equal number of estates are held by Brahmans and Rajputs, the occupation of the former is universally believed to have been earlier than that of the latter. The Gaharwár Rája of Kantit, who is an offshoot of the Kanauj Ráthors, was long the ruler of the province, with Benares as its capital and Kantit as its demesne.

In Bhadohi, north of the Ganges, the country was at first held by Rájputs, who appear to have come from Amber, and to have settled here in the reign of Akbar. It passed out of their hands in the 18th century, when the Mughal

Empire was breaking up. Until 1751 Bhadohi was subordinate to the Nazim of Allahabad, who was the agent of the viceroy of Oudh. Rája Balwant Singh of Benares then held the parganahs in the Ganges valley south of the river, besides Jaunpur and Benares. In 1748, when the viceroy of Oudh was absent at Dehli in consequence of the invasion of Ahmad Shah, Balwant Singh expelled his agents and took possession of Bhadohi. The viceroy was too busy with the Rohillas in 1749-50 to interfere; but in 1751 he attacked Balwant Singh. An arrangement was, however, come to, and in 1752 Bhadohi was formally transferred to him; the transfer was confirmed by Lord Clive in the treaty of August, 1765. Balwant Singh died in 1770, and the English compelled the Vazir to recognize Chait Singh, his son, as heir; but in 1775 the Benares province was ceded to the English. After the expulsion and flight of Chait Singh, the Bhadohi parganah was given to Mahipnarain Singh on condition of his paying £17,565 per annum to Government, and his descendants now hold it on those terms: the sanad or grant is dated January, 1783. Mahipnarain's successor, Udit Narain, claimed the sole proprietorship of the soil, and farmed villages as he pleased. Great discontent was caused, and Regulation VII. of 1828 was passed for the protection of the rights of the subordinate proprietors. In the mutiny there was at first only a Sikh guard at the treasury, but after the mutinies at Benares and Jaunpur on June 1st and 5th, Colonel Pott arrived with part of the 47th native infantry. The Sikhs were called in to Allahabad on the 8th, and on the 9th strong rumours of intended attacks by rebels were current, and all the officers except Mr. St. G. Tucker retired to Chunár. On the 10th Mr. Tucker attacked the rebels and defeated them, and on the 13th a party of the 1st Madras Fusiliers arrived and destroyed Gaura, a stronghold of the river dacoits. In Bhadohi Adwant Singh, the head of the Thákurs, rebelled, but was captured and hanged. The Thákurs vowed vengeance, attacked Mr. Moore, the joint-magistrate of Mirzapur, at Pali factory, and murdered him and two planters while escaping. On the 26th June the Báná and Fatehpur fugitives arrived and passed on to Allahabad. On 11th August the Dinapur mutineers entered the district, but were put to flight by three companies of the 5th, and left the district on the 25th August. Kuar Singh of Arrah entered the district on September 8th, but was forced by the people to pass on to Báná. On the 16th the 50th native infantry mutinied at Nagode, but the officers and 200 faithful men marched through Rewah to Mirzapur. Things remained quiet till Mr. Tucker's expedition to Bijegarh in January, 1858. He drove the rebels across the Sone and re-established order, which was not afterwards disturbed.

25. *Administration.*—Mirzapur is in the commissionership of Benares, and is the most southerly district of that division : it is the headquarters of a civil and sessions judge, who has no other district under him.

(a.) *Criminal and Revenue.*—The ordinary staff of the district consists of a magistrate and collector, a joint-magistrate, assistant magistrate, and deputy collector and magistrate. Besides these there are a deputy superintendent of the Raja of Benares' domains, an assistant sub-deputy opium agent, a district superintendent of police, and a civil surgeon, who all have some magisterial powers. There are also three sub-collectors and magistrates (*tahsildars*), and two special local magistrates at Bijegarh and Bhadohi, besides a justice of the peace at Chunár. In the family domains the Maharaja has the powers of a collector of land revenue.

The sub-magistrates and special magistrates are natives, the rest are Europeans. The magistrate, joint-magistrate, and deputy superintendent of domains have 1st class powers, the assistant and deputy either 1st or 2nd, and the sub-magistrates and special magistrates either 2nd or 3rd.

(b.) *Civil.*—The civil judge has under him one sub-judge and one munsif. In 1875 the total cost to the state of these courts was £5,359, and the amount realized by court fees and stamps was £4,140.

The number of cases decided by each class of courts was—

Civil courts	2,253
Revenue courts	1,908
Criminal courts	2,066

The average value of the property under litigation in the civil courts was £21. In the domains suits regarding land are heard by the officer appointed on the part of the Raja under Regulation VII. of 1828.

(c.) *Police.*—In the year 1875 the total strength of the district regular police force was 884. This number consisted of one district superintendent, 133 officers under the rank of inspector, 22 mounted and 728 foot constables. The cost of maintaining this force was £12,084. The total strength of the police is one man to every 5·88 square miles, and one man to every 1,148 persons in the total population. The cost of maintenance is equal to £1·9 per square mile, or 2·4 pence per head of the population.

In 1875 there were 1,360 chaukidars or village watchmen to 5,403 villages, or one to every 667 inhabitants : their cost was £4,942.

(d.) *Jails.*—There are at Mirzapur two places of confinement for prisoners—(1) the district jail, (2) the magistrate's lock-up.

(1.) The district jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 237 prisoners, of whom 221 were male and 16 female. It is under the charge of the civil

surgeon, who has under him a jailor and 24 subordinate officials ; the average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 42-12-2½ ; the average outturn of labour was Rs. 6.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 573-3-10 ; the rate of mortality was 2·52 per cent. of average strength.

The lock-up contained in 1875 a daily average of 32 under-trial prisoners, of whom 30 were male and 2 female.

(e.) *Post-office and Telegraph.*—There are 17 imperial and 15 local post-offices in the district, and in 1876 there were 47 letters per head of the population and 20·31 per educated man. There are 5 telegraph offices in the district, at the stations of Ahraura Road, Chunár, Pahári, Mirzapur, and Gaepura on the East Indian Railway.

26. *Revenue and Finance.*—The district local funds amounted in 1875 to £15,554, and the expenditure to £11,348.

There are two municipalities, viz., Mirzapur and Chunar : of these the receipts and expenditure were as follows in 1875 :—

Municipality.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Incidence of taxation per head.		
			Rs.	a.	p.
Mirzapur 	£ 6,345	£ 5,386	0	11	0
Chunar 	839	714	0	6	11

The whole amount of revenue raised in the district, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, in 1876 was £114,377, or on a population of 1,055,904 an incidence per head of 2·16 shillings : out of this £36,060, or 31·52 per cent. of the total receipts, was returned to the district in payment for its administration.

27. *Medical statistics.*—There are 6 dispensaries in the district of Mirzapur—at Mirzapur, Narghat, Dudhi, Korh, Robertsganj, and Chunár.

During the year 1875, 34,454 persons were treated in these dispensaries, of whom 582 were in-door and 33,872 out-door patients. The total receipts were £926, and the expenditure on establishment £624.

The total number of deaths in the year 1875 was 22,612, or 22·27 per 1,000 of the population ; the mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 during the previous six years was 17·95.

In 1875, 7,381 persons were vaccinated, and the operation was successful in 6,595 cases.

28. *Education.*—There were 191 schools in the district in 1875 with 6,653 scholars, which gives an average area of 27·31 square miles for each school, and a percentage of scholars on the total population of ·65.

In the Government tahsíl schools there were 4,856 scholars, of whom 3,762 were Hindus and 1,094 Musalmáns ; their cost per head was 10s. 6d.

There were 12 female schools in all.

The total cost of all schools was £3,896, of which £1,668 was paid from provincial and £2,228 from local sources.

29. *Fairs and chief towns.*—There are only three places in the district with more than 5,000 inhabitants : these are—(1) Mirzápur, on the south or right bank of the Ganges, about 56 miles below Allahabad, and 45 miles above Benares (by railway). This was up to quite recently a large thriving city with a great trade in cotton, grain, &c., but during the last few years the trade has rapidly decreased, and has now in great part left the city. The chief causes have been the opening of the railway to Bombay and Jabalpur and the rise of Cawnpore. Mirzapur has a population of 67,274, of whom 55,917 are Hindus and 11,053 Musalmáns ; its area is 673 square acres, rate of taxation Re. 1-1-2 per head, and income £7,210 : it has 100 persons to the square acre.

(2) Chunár or Chunárgarh (the fort of Chunár) is situated on the south or right bank of the Ganges, about 26 miles (by rail) above Benares and 20 miles below Mirzapur. It is placed just where the Ganges takes its great bend to go north-east up to Benares. It has a population of 10,154, of whom 7,289 are Hindus, 2,462 Musalmáns, and 403 Europeans ; there being a colony of European military pensioners here, and also a company of the English regiment in garrison at Allahabad. These guard the fort, which is used as a place of confinement for political prisoners. The income of Chunár is £596, the rate of taxation Rs. 0-9-5, and the area 211 square acres, giving 48 persons to the acre.

(3) Ahraura is a town 12 miles south-east of Chunár and 18 miles south of Benares : it is 10 miles south of the East Indian Railway, and on the road from Benares to Ahraura there is a station called Ahraura Road. It has a population of 9,019, an income of £245, a taxation of Rs. 0-4-4 per head, and an area of 123 square acres.

Fairs.—In parganah Bhadohi (north of the Ganges) there are (1) the Gházi Mian, on the 1st Sunday in Jeth (29th April) at Murjadpatti near Bhadohi, lasting two days.

(2) The Gauri Shankar Mahadeo, on the 13th of Sawan and Phágún (7th August and 11th February), at Samradh on the banks of the Ganges.

(3) Every Khichri Sankrant on the banks of the Ganges at Rámpur, Etawah, and Digh—bathing mélás.

(4) At the anniversary of the birth of Lawa and Kusa, sons of Sita, born when she retired to Valmiki's hermitage after her return from Lanka (Ceylon). This takes place at Báripur-Naripur.

(5) The Rámlila, when Bhárat meets Ráma in state on his way home from the conquest of the Deccan. This takes place from the 1st to the 12th Kuar (September) at Gopiganj and Bhadohi.

(6.) At Bindhachal in Kuar (September), when sacrifices are offered to the Bindhachal Devi.

30. *Archæology.* (1)—At Chunár there is a stone slab in the fortress containing an inscription which refers to the inroad of a Mughal army under Shaháb-ud-din, a general of Multammad Shah, in 1333 A.D. The fort was twice occupied by the enemy, who, however, eventually retired.

(2) At Samradh, on the banks of the Ganges, there is a curious old temple of Mahadeo, the lingam in which is held in much reverence.

(3) At Bhikampur, Sikandarpur, &c., there are the remains of stone-built forts erected by the different branches of the family of Gaharwár Musál-máns, who formerly held the parganah.

(4) Above the fall of the Karmnásá near Chahía there is the tomb of a faqír, Latif Shah, erected by a Raja of Benares.

(5) On the precipitous cliff overhanging the river Chandraprabha, below the fall through which its waters descend from the central plateau to the Ganges valley, there is a large enclosure surrounded with a high wall of dressed stones; this is called the Kot of Raja Purarwa, and the fall is known as the Purwa-darri. It was no doubt used as a place of refuge in invasions.

M O R A D A B A D.



MORADABAD.

A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. *Position and area.*—The district of Moradabad—bounded on the north by the districts of Bijnor and the Tarai, on the east by the territory of the Nawáb of Rámpur, on the south by the Budaun district, and on the west by the Bulandshahr and Meerut districts—lies between $28^{\circ} 13' 45''$ and $29^{\circ} 15' 45''$ north latitude, and between $78^{\circ} 7' 0''$ and $79^{\circ} 2' 45''$ east longitude, and contains an area of 2,271 square miles and a population of 1,122,437 persons, or 494 to the square mile.

2. *Subdivisions.*—The district is divided into six tahsils or sub-collectorates, and 6 parganahs, as follows, from east to west :—

Tahsil.	Parganah.	Revenue.
Bilári	Bilári	24,076
Sambhal	Sambhal	28,924
Moradabad	Moradabad	25,967
Amroha	Amroho	11,769
Hasanpur	Hassanpur	18,517
Thíkurdwára	Thákurdwár	18,472
	Total	127,725

These tahsils formerly contained parganahs as follows :—

1. Moradabad	...	Moradabad. Moghálpur.
		Sarkára.
2. Sambhal	...	Sírsi. Sambhal. Bahjoi.
		Síondára.
3. Bilári	...	Kundarkhl. Chandausi. Narauli.
		Amroha. Garhi.
4. Amroha	...	Salempur. Rájábur.
		Dilári.
5. Thíkurdwára	...	Káshipur. Thákurdwár. Jaspur.

6. Hasanpur	...	Bachhraun. Hasanpur. Ujhári. Tigri. Dhakka. Sirsa.
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3. *Physical geography and boundaries.*—The maximum length of the district from north to south is 61 miles, and the minimum 37 miles: the maximum breadth is 53 and the minimum 40 miles: the whole boundary line measures 250 miles. The highest point in the district is at Raghulwala in parganah Thákurdwára, *viz.*, 766 feet above sea level, and the lowest is at Chaharpur in parganah Sambhal, 598 feet.

The lowlands or khádir of the Ganges comprise all the western boundary of the Hassanpur tahsíl from the Bijnor border down to Sirsa Sarai, opposite Ahar. The line of demarcation is very distinct. The lands towards the east of the khádir are sandy. The Ramganga khádir lies on both sides of that river in tahsils Amroha, Thákurdwára, and Moradabad. With this exception, and that of the Sote valley, the surface of the district is not remarkably low. The parganah of Thákurdwára lying immediately under the hills has, of course, a greater elevation than any other part of the district.

The purely plain part of the district does not differ in elevation anywhere by more than 40 feet, and wherever this occurs it is due to some river. The face of the district is tolerably well covered with trees, and mango topes abound.

The district divides itself naturally into three parts—(1) the trans-Ramganga portion; (2) the middle portion from the Ramganga to the Sote; (3) the western portion from the Sote to the Ganges. The lines demarcating these run from north-west to south-east.

(1.) The trans-Rámanga portion consists of the tahsíl of Thákurdwára and the northern two-thirds of that of Moradabad. These are sub-montane in character, and are traversed by a large number of streams which descend from the Himalayas and fall into the Ramganga.

(2.) The central portion from the Ramganga to the Sote consists of the remainder of tahsíl Moradabad, the greater part of Amroha, and the whole of Bilári. This is a plain level country which descends gradually to the valleys of the Ramganga and the Sote on either side, and is traversed in its northern part by the Gánjan and the Bán, the former afterwards forming its east boundary where it marches with the Rámpur state.

(3.) The western portion from the Sote to the Ganges. This contains the remainder of tahsíl Amroha, and the whole of Hasanpur and Sambhal, and

is a plain country sloping gradually to the Ganges, and only intersected in its western part by various streams which ultimately find their way into the larger river, though in this district they run more or less parallel to it for many miles.

4. *Rivers.*—The chief rivers of the district are (1) the Ramganga, (2) the Ganges, (3) the Gangan, (4) the Sote or Yar-i-wafadár, and (5) and the Bán.

(1.) The Ramganga enters the district in the north-west corner of parganah Thákurdwára, four miles south of Surjannagar. It flows in a generally south-east direction, but with a devious course for 50 miles through parganahs Thákurdwára and Moradabad, passing Moghalpur in the 24th mile, and Moradabad in the 34th, and leaving the district at the south-east point of parganah Moradabad, passing thence into the Rámpur territory. The Ramganga has no affluents on its right or western bank in this district, but many streams flow into it from the hills on the eastern or left bank. The largest of these are (1) the Lapakna, which rises in parganah Jaspur and flows south through Thákurdwára for 30 miles, till it joins the Ramganga near Mustafapur in the 20th mile; (2) the Dhela, which enters the district from Káshipur, six miles south of that town, and divides parganas Thákurdwára and Moradabad for 20 miles, and then flows through parganah Moradabad, for 5 miles, till it falls into the Ramganga at the 29th mile—4 miles above Moradabad.

The Kosi, flows all through Káshipur and Rámpur, and enters the district two miles west of the city of Rámpur; it then flows 10 miles due south through parganah Moradabad, and falls into the Ramganga at Chatrapur, 15 miles below Moradabad. There is a bridge of boats over the Ramganga at Moradabad all the year round.

(2.) The Ganges divides this district from those of Meerut and Bulandshahr for 38 miles during which its course is nearly due south. It first touches the district on the borders of Azampur, Bashta of Bijnor, and Hasanpur of this district, and has the latter parganah on its eastern bank throughout its course in the district. In the 9th mile it passes Garhmukhtesar on the Meerut and Moradabad road where a large fair is held annually; in the 16th Put the capital of parganah Put of Meerut, in the 27th Farídah, and in the 34th Ahar, the chief towns of parganah Ahar-Farídah of Bulandshahr, but all these towns are on the west bank, and there are none of any importance along the Ganges on the Moradabad side. There are boat bridges from October to June at Tigri and Sherpur.

(3.) The Gangan comes down from Bijnor and enters the district at the northern point of parganah Amroha; it separates that parganah from parganah Sichára of Bijnor for 20 miles, and then passes into the former at Asgha-

ripur, flowing thence 10 miles due south, and then turning east for 8 miles till it passes close to Moradabad.

Thence it flows on through parganah Moradabad for about 16 miles to a point 5 miles east of Kwndarkhi where it passes into Rámpur territory, but only for 6 miles when it returns and forms the boundary between Rámpur and parganah Siondára for 13 miles till it leaves the district near Cháorah in the south-east of the parganah.

(4.) The Sote or Yár-i-wafadár rises just to the west of Amroha and flows south through that parganah and parganahs Sambhal, Sirsi, and Narauli, till it leaves the district 5 miles west of Chandausi, having formed the boundary between parganahs Narauli and Bahjoi for the last 14 miles : its whole course is about 44 miles in this district, but it does not become a considerable stream till after it passes into the Budaun district. It is crossed by an iron bridge on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway at Afzalpur Bijauli.

(5.) The Bán is a tributary of the Gangan ; it comes down from parganah Chándpur of Bijnor, and enters the district in the northern part of parganah Amroha ; it flows south-east for 24 miles passing near Amroha and falling into the Gángan at Sirhamanir, 9 miles north-west of Moradabad.

5. *Lakes.*—There are no remarkable jhíls or lakes in the district. The only large jhíls are those at Kirpanathpur on the Meerut road; at Phílpur, Bijalpur, close to Hasanpur, the Dháb near Azampur, the Bagad near Sújínana, and the Khudáya near Sultán Ther—all of these are used for irrigation purposes.

6. *Forests and waste lands.*—There are not many wide uncultivated pasture grounds in the district ; the principal are in parganahs Thákurdwára and Amroha. In those parganahs and in Hasanpur and Bilári occasional patches of Khair (acacia catechu) and dhák (butea frondosa) jungle are to be found. Cultivation has extended everywhere, with the exception of a few small sandy and usar (saltpetre) patches found at intervals throughout the district. Hasanpur and Sambhal tahsils have more of this sandy soil than the rest.

7. *Geology.*—The whole of the district is an alluvial plain, sloping up gradually from the south towards the Himalayas, and in the extreme north assuming a sub-montane character. The part north of the Rámganga is furrowed by numerous mountain torrents, and is therefore uneven and raviny, the rest is a level plain only intersected by the rivers Sote and Gangan. Kan-kar beds of nodular limestone are exposed occasionally in the beds of rivers or by artificial excavations, but otherwise nothing is seen but the alluvial clay, sand, and loam.

8. *Climate.*—The average total rainfall was 37·6 inches for the 10 years' from 1861 to 1870; during this period the maximum was 49·3 inches in 1867-68, and the minimum was 20·4 inches in 1868-69.

The annual mean temperature was 74·5; the lowest monthly mean was 56° in January, and the highest 86° in June.

With the exception of Thákurdwára, the northern part of the Moradabad tahsil, the Ganges khádir, the valley of the Sote, and a few villages on the Aril, the climate of Moradabad is healthy. It is neither very dry nor very moist, and except in seasons of drought there is generally rain in every month of the year. The hot winds usually begin to blow towards the end of April, and continue till nearly the end of June. The rains then commence and continue till the end of September or beginning of October; the cold weather sets in after a short period of dry warm weather and lasts till April.

9. *Minerals and trees.*—Among the trees of the district are (1) the shárifá or custard-apple, (2) the semal or cotton tree, (3) the narangi or orange, (4) the chakotra or pummelow, (5) the mitha nimbu or sweet lime, (6) the kaghazi nimbu or lime, (7) the citron or taranj, and the bel (an astringent), (9) nim, (10) tun, (11) ám or mango, (12) imli or tamarind, (13) amaltas, (14) shisham, (15) peach, (16) loquát, (17) prune, (18) pear, (19) anár or pomegranate, (20) bela or jásmine, (21) bargad, (22) pipal, (23) gular, (24) pákar, (25) anjir or fig, and (26) keora or screwpine.

There are no mines in the district, but kankar quarries abound in the south and west, on the Meerut and the Aligarh roads, and near Chandausi. Stone is burnt for lime, but is rarely used for building purposes.

10. *Animals, birds, and fish.*—The wild animals found in the district are the monkey, bat, mole, weasel, otter, wolf, fox, tiger, badger, squirrel, porcupine, hare, hog, antelope, párá (hog-deer), and nil-gae (blue-bull).

Among birds the Raptore are represented by the falcons, eagles, vultures, buzzards, kites, and owls, the passers-by, shrikes, piddas, shamas, orioles, sparrows, and martins, the scansores by woodpeckers, crows, jays, mainas, babbler, and starlings, which abound in the slight coverts in the neighbourhood of villages. Among game birds are the quail, grey partridge, black partridge, rock pigeon, blue pigeon, green pigeon, wild ducks, and geese, pelican, bittern, bustards, snipe, and plover.

Of reptiles the long-nosed alligator (*gharial*), the snub-nosed alligator, (*náká*), the ignána (*goh*), the lizárd (*chhapkali*), the centipede (*kankhajura*), the scorpion (*bichhu*), and many varieties of snakes (of which the cobra and karait are the most venomous) are found.

The most common fish are the (1) rahu, mahásír, lánchi, singhára, baon or bam (eel), gonch (fresh water shark), and narain.

There is no local breed of cattle. Bullocks for agricultural purposes cost from 10 to 30 rupees ; horses are bred by the inhabitants from their own stocks, and from stud mares and stallions ; these latter are stationed at Barhauli, Hasanpur, Gohat, Sambhal, Rajabpur, and Amroha.

Sheep and goats cost from 1 to 4 rupees, and belong to the ordinary breed of the plains.

11. *Population.*—In the census of 1872 there were 2,271 square miles in the Moradabad district, with 2,452 mauzas, 252,344 houses, and a population of 1,122,437. There were 494 persons and 1·1 villages to the square mile, 458 persons per village, and 4·4 persons per house. There were 17,128 masonry houses, and 235,216 mud ones.

Of the sexes there were 596,776 males and 525,355 females.

The number of each religion and sex were as follows :—

Hindús	{ Males	405,350
..	{ Females	346,429
			Total	751,779
Musalmáns ..	{ Males	191,191
..	{ Females	178,758
			Total	369,949
Christians ..	{ Males	235
..	{ Females	168
			Total	403

The percentages of each sex and religion on the total population were as follows :—

Hindús	67·0	Males	53·2
Musalmáns	33·0	Females	46·8

There were 3·2 persons per cent. above 60 years of age, and 21,154 males able to read and write. The total agricultural population was 638,046. The area of assessed land was 1,939 square miles, of which 251 were uncultivable, 409 cultivable, and 1,279 cultivated, and there were besides 20 square miles of uncultivable unassessed land.

The amount of land revenue was £122,517, and the rates and cesses on land £2,557, and the incidence of the land revenue per culturable acre was Re. 1-2-1.

The percentage of agricultural on total population was 56·8.

The numbers of the chief Hindú castes and Musalmán tribes were as follows:—

Hindús	... {	Brahmans 47,744
		Rájputs 60,721
		Banials 39,261
		Ahirs 26,492
		Chamárs 17,555
		Kayatts 10,214
		Karmis 2,056
Musalmáns	... {	Shekhs 326,251
		Saiads 18,888
		Mughals 3,286
		Patháns 22,726

There were altogether 2,452 inhabited villages and towns, of which 895 contained less than 200 inhabitants, 1,017 less than 500, 407 less than 1,000, 97 less than 2,000, 13 less than 3,000, 11 less than 5,000, 8 less than 10,000, and 4 above 20,000.

12. The following figures show the comparative results of the censuses of 1853, 1865, and 1872:—

Area.—This was 2,698 square miles in 1853, 2,460 in 1865, 2,271 in 1872; it therefore decreased by 238 square miles, or 9·6 per cent. in the first twelve years, and by 189 square miles, or 8·3 per cent. in the latter seven years. The total decrease in the whole nineteen years was 427 square miles, or 18·8 per cent.

Population.—The total population was 1,138,461 in 1853, 1,096,767 in 1865, 1,122,437 in 1872; it therefore decreased by 41,694, or 3·8 per cent. from 1853 to 1865, and increased by 25,670, or 2·3 per cent. from 1865 to 1872, while the decrease was 16,024, or 1·4 per cent. in the whole nineteen years from 1853 to 1872; the rate of decrease per cent. per annum being ·32 in the first twelve years, and the increase ·32 in the latter seven years; the decrease on the whole period was ·074 per cent. per annum.

The decrease though small is remarkable, as an increase would have been expected; it is no doubt due to transfers of population to other districts.

Sex.—There were of males in 1853, 606,472; 581,669 in 1865; and 596,776 in 1872: they therefore decreased by 24,803 in the first period, or 4·2 per cent., and increased in the second by 15,107, or 2·5 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years the decrease was 9,696, or 1·6 per cent.

There were of females in 1853, 531,989; in 1865, 515,098; and in 1872, 525,355; they therefore decreased in the first period by 16,891, or 3·3

per cent., and in the second increased by 10,257, or 1·9 per cent., while the decrease on the whole was 6,634, or 1·2 per cent.

The proportion of males to females was—

1·14 to 1 in 1853

1·12 „ 1 „ 1865.

1·13 „ 1 „ 1872.

The proportions may therefore be said to have remained stationary during the whole period.

The males decreased by 4·2 per cent. in the first period, and increased by 2·5 in the second, or decreased 1·6 on the whole. The females decreased by 3·2 in the first, and increased by 1·9 in the second, or decreased by 1·2 on the whole. So that in the first period the males decreased 1 per cent. more than the females, and in the second period increased by ·6 more than the females, while on the whole they decreased by ·2 more.

The annual rates were—

	Decrease per cent.		Increase per cent.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
	—	—	—	—
In the first period ...	·35	·27
In the second period ...	···	···	·35	·27
In the whole period ...	·08	·06

Religion.—There were 765,994 Hindús in 1853, 734,495 in 1865, and 751,779 in 1872; they therefore decreased in the first period by 31,499, or 4·2 per cent., and increased in the second by 17,284, or 2·3 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years the decrease was 14,215, or 1·8 per cent.

There were of Musalmáns 372,467 in 1853, 362,272 in 1865, and 369,949 in 1872: they therefore decreased in the first period by 10,195, or 2·8 per cent., and in the second increased by 7,677, or 2·1 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years the decrease was 2,518, or ·6 per cent.

The proportions of Hindús to Musalmáns were—

2·05 to 1 in 1853.

2·02 „ 1 „ 1865.

2·03 „ 1 „ 1872.

The proportion of Hindús, therefore, decreased slightly in the first period, and increased very slightly in the second.

The Hindús decreased by 4·2 per cent. in the first period, and increased 2·3 per cent. in the second, or decreased by 1·8 per cent. on the whole. The Musalmáns decreased by 2·8 per cent. in the first period, and increased by 2·1

in the second, or decreased by .6 per cent. on the whole. So that in the first period the Hindús decreased half as fast again as the Musalmáns, while in the second period they increased at about the same rate, and in the whole period the Hindús decreased at three times the rate per cent. at which the Musalmáns did.

Land revenue.—In 1853 the land revenue was Rs. 13,40,312, in 1865, Rs. 13,17,502, and in 1872 Rs. 12,25,170: it had therefore decreased by Rs. 22,810, or 1.7 per cent. in the first period, and by Rs. 92,332, or 7.5 per cent. in the second, while on the whole nineteen years the decrease was Rs. 1,15,142, or 9.3 per cent.

The decrease was therefore .14 per cent. per annum during the first period, and 1.07 per cent. per annum during the second period, while on the whole nineteen years it was at the rate of .48 per cent. annum.

Number of mauzas.—This was 3,484 in 1853, 3,027 in 1865, and only 2,452 in 1872. The mauzas therefore diminished by 457 or 15.0 per cent. from 1853 to 1865, and by 575, or 23.4 per cent. from 1865 to 1872; the total diminution on the whole nineteen years being 1,032, or 42.0 per cent. of the number now remaining. This is due chiefly to the transfer of villages to the Tarái.

Persons per square mile.—In 1853 there were 422 persons per square mile; in 1865, 446; and in 1872, 494: the density of population therefore increased by 24, or 5.6 per cent. in the first period of twelve years, or .46 per cent. per annum; it increased by 48, or 10.7 per cent. during the second period of seven years, or 1.53 per cent. per annum; and by 72, or 17.0 per cent., or .9 per cent. per annum in the whole period of nineteen years.

This district has therefore increased enormously in density of population in the last nineteen years, *viz.*, nearly at the rate of 1 per cent. per annum. Its rate of increase is higher than that of any district in the Meerut division and higher than Bijnor.

14. *Town and village population.*—The better classes in the towns usually live in brick houses, which often occupy an area of from 500 to 600 square yards, and consist of an inclosing wall containing 5 or 6 rooms, a vestibule, and a hall. The latter is usually 24' to 30' long by 10' to 12' wide; the rooms are from 9' to 12' square. There is one door for entrance, and the interior is divided into two separate enclosures by a wall,—the one for men the other for women. The living rooms are ranged round the inclosing walls leaving an open space in the centre.

There are 12 towns, with a population exceeding 5,000, *viz.*, Moradabad, Moghalpur, Amroha, Maunagar (or Kant), Hasanpur, Dhanaura, Sambhal, Sirsi, Chandausi, Narauli, Bhojpur, and Bachhraun. These have a total

population of 216,742, or about one-fifth of the whole population of the district which is 1,122,437, so that a much larger proportion of the population lives in large towns than in the more eastern districts.

Of the 2,452 inhabited places in the district, 895 contain less than 200 inhabitants, and are mere hamlets, 1,912 contain less than 500, and are small villages, and 2,319 contain less than 1,000 inhabitants, and are hardly towns, so that only 133 can be really called towns. Moradabad is a city, and Amroha, Sambhal, and Chandausi are very large towns—much larger than the headquarters of some districts.

15. *Value of house and furniture.*—The cost of building a house of the best class may be considered to be from £200 upwards, of the second class from £15 to £150, and of the third class from £1 to £10.

A trader's house of the better class contains generally about £50 worth of furniture and utensils of all kinds. Bedsteads, mattrasses, quilts, carpets, and boxes would represent about £30 worth of this, and cooking vessels the remainder.

A well-to-do cultivator owns a few strong boxes and bedsteads and quilts worth about £10, besides cooking vessels worth £5 or £6.

An artizan in middling circumstances possesses one or two mattrasses, bedsteads, and quilts, and some drinking vessels, worth altogether about £3.

A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars, one or two quilts, and perhaps a cot, worth in all 10 shillings to a pound.

The cost of an ordinary brick-house, including out-houses, is from £70 to £80. Brick-houses often have two or more stories. Mud-houses are built on the same plan, but have usually one storey only, and have flat roofs supported on rafters. They cost from £5 to £20. Thatched houses are usually constructed in rows within a square or oblong piece of ground, about 150 or 200 square yards in area. This is inclosed and contains from 4 to 20 rooms according to the size and number of the families which live together. Each room has a front opening to the centre of the enclosure, which is often converted into a cattle-shed.

16. *Trades-unions.*—The powerful caste panchayats answer very much the purpose of trades-unions, though they have a much wider field of action than an English trades-union has. Panchayats are assembled for the adjustment of disputes as to rights or caste, or to form a union and adopt a common line of action, with regard to some matter which concerns the members of the caste or trade. The number of arbitrators is generally three or five, but in boundary disputes one person is often appointed as sole arbitrator. Sometimes

the head man alone has the power of exclusion from caste for breach of caste rules, and the offender is not readmitted till he has paid the penalty ordained by the panchayat.

17. *Village communities*.—The villages in this district, as in nearly all in the north-west, may be classified into three kinds, according to the modes in which the land is held and the Government revenue paid.

(1.) *Zamindári*.—Where the whole of the land belongs to several owners in joint occupation, one (or more) of the owners is usually selected by the rest to manage the estate, and to collect the Government revenue and pay it in to Government.

(2.) *Imperfect pattidári*.—Where the village is partly held by several owners in joint occupation, and partly by several owners in severalty or separate occupation.

(3.) *Pattidári*.—Where the land has been completely divided among the sharers, and is held by several owners in severalty, but under one tenure as regards the Government. There is also a fourth kind of mahál or estate called bhaiachára, where, though it belongs to the 2nd or 3rd class, the rights and interest of each co-sharer are not determined by his ancestral share, but by custom or possession. Mukadami (steward's) and revenue-free holdings are not common,—the zamindári class is found all over the district, the pattidári principally in Bilári, Sambhal, and Hasanpur; there are a few steward's tenures in Thákurdwára and revenue-free holdings in Amroha. There are only 24 bhaiachára villages in the whole district.

The following table shows the numbers of each kind of estate in each tahsíli or sub-collectorate :—

Tahsíli.	Zamindari.	Pattidári.	Bhaiachára.	Revenue-free	Revenue villages.	Number of estates.
Moradabad ...	259	68	...	24	307	515
Bilári ...	269	181	1	16	435	923
Sambhal ...	501	30	...	22	509	1,111
Amroha ...	520	88	...	412	196	746
Hasanpur ...	570	56	22	80	568	1,003
Thákurdwára ...	254	27	1	30	250	464
Total ...	2,873	450	24	584	2,265	4,762

18. *Condition of the people*.—Among the Hindús of the district, the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the first class, or having incomes over £100 a year, £96 to £180; (2) for those in the second class, or having

incomes between £20 and £100 a year, about £24 to £60; and (3) for those in the third class, or with incomes under £20 a year from £6 to £12; for the Musalmáns it would be rather more, as their habits are somewhat more expensive.

The people are well off in this district. At the close of the rains, and while the crops are being cut, the usual food of the labouring classes consists of sattu, sáwan, bájra, juár, and makka: in the spring they eat wheat, gram, barley, and bijra, and these cost from $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ to 3d. a day for each person. Petty traders eat chapattis or unleavened cakes of wheat with dál, rice or vegetables, during the day, and with vegetables and ghí at night. This costs about 4d. a day per head.

The better class of traders vary their food with the more expensive kinds of rice, ghí, curds, and sweatmeats, so that it costs from $4\frac{1}{2}d.$ to 9d. a day.

The better class of Musalmáns have meat and spiced dishes frequently, and generally a more expensive kind of diet: except in Thákurdwára and along the Ganges the agricultural classes are well off. They number about 200,000, of whom 66,660 are tenants with a right of occupancy and 133,330 are tenants-at-will.

19. *Character of the soil.*—In the tahsils of Hasanpur and Sambhal there is a good deal of the sandy soil known locally as "katahir" and "bhúr," but generally the soil of the district consists of a mixture of loam, sand, and black earth. The black soil is found in the northern parts of Thákurdwára and Moradabad, and in the Ganges khádir below Shahrpur and Lakhapur in the Sambhal tahsil. The best soil in the district, however, is that found in tahsil Bilári and in a portion of Moradabad.

Rent-rates fluctuate with soil and crop; irrigated dumat or loam, suitable for wheat, cotton, and sugarcane varies from 12s. to 19s. an acre, while unirrigated land of the same quality fetches 8s. to 12s. Irrigated matiar or clay yields 8s. to 10s., and unirrigated clay soil 5s. to 6s. (only for rice).

Sandy soil pays 4s. to 6s. an acre. The best land is the sugarcane land in Amroha, which fetches 16s. to 24s. an acre. The rent is often paid by a share of the crop (batái), and this varies from half to a quarter, according to the character of the soil. In Hasanpur and Thákurdwára they are often only one-fifth.

The poor clayey soils in Sambhal only fetch 6s. to 12s. an acre, and the sandy soil on which only millets and pulses grow are not worth more than 1s. 8d. to 3s. 6d.

Sandy and unirrigated land in Bilári is generally let for 4s. an acre.

20. *Course of tillage.*—There are two harvests—the kharif or autumn one and the rabbi or spring one. The kharif crops are sown in June directly the first rain falls, and are harvested in October and November, and some of the rice in September, or even as early as the end of August; but cotton is not ripe for picking till February. Besides cotton and rice they include bajra, juar, mot, &c. The rabbi crops are sown in October and November, and reaped in March and April: they consist of corn, barley, oats, vetch, and peas, and dál or arhar. The staple crops of the district are sugarcane, wheat, pulses, and millets. Although rice of good quality is not produced in the district, several varieties are grown in tahsils Thákurdwára, Amroha, and Moradabad; good wheat is produced in Sambhal and Bilári: the latter also has a large sugarcane cultivation. In 1869, the areas under the different crops were—

	<i>Autumn Crops.</i>				<i>Spring Crops.</i>		
Rice	75,201	acres.	Wheat and barley	270,217
Cotton	42,470	"	Pulses	25,054
Juar and bajra	168,787	"	Oilseeds	10,908
Til and Oilseeds	4,958	"	Miscellaneous	18,043
Miscellaneous	92,632			"
	Total	...	384,048	"		Total	324,222

Besides these were the crops which do not belong to either season, viz.:—

					<i>Acres.</i>
Sugarcane	29,286
Vegetables	2,255
Fruit trees	6,953
	Total	...			38,494

The total cultivated area in 1869 was 747,764 acres, and in 1872 753,258 acres.

About 64lbs of wheat is sown per acre, and the total cost of production is 42s., the return being about 2,560lbs. worth from 48s. to 128s. The cultivation of sugarcane costs about 116s. an acre, and the cost of cutting and pressing 24s., so that the total cost is about 140s., and the yield is about 16,000lbs. worth 250s.

The quality of the cane has improved, and the amount of its cultivation increased in the last 20 years, but no other crop has changed or improved during that period. At the commencement of the rains in June the soil is ploughed two or three times, and if an autumn crop is to be sown, then much oftener. It is then levelled with a board and the seed is sown broadcast. This is ploughed in again and harrowed.

The chief vegetables are—(1) cauliflower (*phūl kobi*) ; (2) cabbage (*kobi*) ; (3) turnip (*shalgam*) , (4) radish (*muli*) ; (5) melon (*kharbúza*) ; (6) water-melon (*tar-buza*) ; (7) gourd, cucumber (*kakri*) ; (8) carrot (*gájar*) ; (9) feunel (*soia*) ; (10) coriander (*dhaniyá*) ; (11) anise (*soanf*) ; (12) cumin (*zira*) ; (13) carraway (*ajwain*) ; (14) eggplant (*baigan*) ; (15) onions (*piyáz*) ; 16 peas (*matar*).

21. *Years of scarcity.*—The district is subject to droughts and famines, and also to floods from the Ganges and Rámganga. There have been five famines in it since the introduction of British rule. The first in 1803, directly after the cession ; the second in 1825-26 ; the third in 1837-38 ; the fourth in 1860-61 ; and the fifth in 1868-69. The first famine was caused by the devastation and losses which occurred during the Marhatta invasions and the raids of Amir Khán, heightened by the scantiness of the rainfall in 1825. The second famine was also due to drought, the cultivators were poor, the means of communication bad ; and the consequent loss of life severe. In the 3rd famine the state of the district was much the same, and the distress and loss of life even greater. In the fourth in 1860-61, though the people had not recovered from the effects of the mutiny, yet efficient measures of relief were introduced, and the famine was not nearly so severely felt as that of 1837. Relief had to be continued till the sowing season commenced in June, 1861.

The last famine of 1868-69 was caused by the scarcity of rain in 1868, and the absence of the winter showers in the cold-weather of 1868-69 : it was also partly due to the impossibility of constructing proper temporary wells, and to the immense influx of starving immigrants from Rájputána and the south.

22. *Communications and trade.*

I. Railways.—The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, leaving the city of Muradabad on the south proceeds along the slip of land separating the valley of the Ramganga from that of the Gángan. There is a station at Kharakpur five miles south of Moradabad, and then the line crossing the Gángan by a bridge 700 feet long, leaves the khádir or low land and reaches Kundarkhi station 11 miles from Moradabad. At the 15th mile is the Bilári station, and thence the line runs through a level country to the river Aril which is crossed by a bridge of 200 feet in length. The junction station of Chandausi, where the branch line from Aligarh joins the main line from Benares to Moradabad, is 28 miles from the latter city. The main line leaves the district at once and passes into Budaun and thence to Bareilly, but the Aligarh branch line runs south-west through Narauli and Bahjoi and having a station at the latter place. At the 36th mile from Moradabad the line crosses the Sotc by a bridge 570 feet

long, and near the station of Dhanári, 45 miles from Moradabad, it passes into the Budaun district.

II.—Metalled roads—(1.) The Bareilly and Meerut road passing through Moradabad, and going from the Rámpur border south of Rámpur to Tigri on the Ganges, opposite Garmukhtesar, 53 miles long.

(2.) Moradabad to Anúpshahr, 36 miles south-west, passing through Sirsi, Sambhal, and Ganwán (in Badaon).

(3.) Moradabad to Naini Tal, of which 22 miles are in this district, passing through Badli Tanda, Shifakhana, and Káladungi, north-east.

III.—Unmetalled roads—(1.)—Moradabad to Ranikhet via Káshipur and Rámnanagar, 31 miles in this district due north.

(2.) Moradabad and Bijnor via Amroha and Chándpur, 25 miles in this district north-west.

(3.) Moradabad to Chandausi via Kundarkhi and Bilári, 28 miles due south; this road goes on to Budaon.

(4.) Pákbara (6 miles on Meerut road) to Amroha, 10 miles north-west.

(5.) Moradabad to Thákurdwára via Bhojpur and Alampur, 26 miles due north.

(6.) Sambhal to Hasanpur via Singhpur and Saidnagli, 20 miles north-west.

(7.) Hasanpur to Amroha via Rajabpur, 17 miles north-east.

There are altogether 31 district unmetalled roads measuring 585 miles.

Trade.—The whole district except the Moradabad tahsil exports grain largely; that tahsil exports 200,000 mans of sugar and imports 2,000,000 mans of grain. The number of traders and the scale of their transactions have increased of late years. The balance of trade is decidedly in favour of the district, but accumulations are rarely vested in hoarding—much more often in increasing the capital with which the trading operations are carried on.

At the various fairs in the district there is a good deal of trade in foreign piece-goods, cutlery, hawker's wares, sweetmeats and toys, and at Chandausi and Dhanaura there is a large trade in sugar.

23. *Money-lending, wages, and prices*.—(1.) The rates of interest at present (1877) charged in the district are as follows:—

(a.) In small transactions when articles are pawned, from Rs. 18 to 36 per cent.

(b.) In small transactions, where personal security is given, from Rs. 18 to 37 per cent.

(c.) In large transactions when jewels, &c., are pledged, from Rs. 6 to 18 per cent.

(d.) When bankers lend money to bankers on personal security, Rs. 6 to 9 per cent.

(e.) When land is mortgaged, from Rs. 6 to 12 per cent.

Petty agricultural advances are made at the rate of 25 per cent.

(2.) The rates of wages are as follows :—

(a.) Coolies and unskilled labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ pence a day.

(b.) Agricultural labourers $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 pence a day.

(c.) Bricklayers and carpenters, 6 pence to 2 shillings a day.

Female-labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men.

Boys of from 12 to 16 get two-thirds of the wages of full grown men.

Boys younger than that and girls from one-half to one-third.

Ordinary day-labourers received in 1850 from $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $3d.$ a day, and in 1872 from $3d.$ to $3\frac{1}{2}d.$; agricultural labourers a little less; blacksmiths $4\frac{1}{2}d.$ in 1850, and $6d.$ in 1872, bricklayers $3d.$ to $4\frac{1}{2}d.$ in 1850 and $6d.$ to $7\frac{1}{2}d.$ in 1872, and carpenters $4\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $6d.$ in 1850 and $6d.$ to $9d.$ in 1872.

(3.) *Prices.*—The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were as follows :—

Number of seers (2lbs.) for a rupee (2s.).

	1st April.	1st August.	1st December.	Average.
Wheat	25	25	24	24
Rice	8	10	11	9
Jowár	35	21	32	29
Bájra	36	31	32	33
Dál	23	26	27	25

24. *History.*—The district of Moradabad is part of the old kingdom of Panchálá in which was situated Sambhal. The headquarters of Government were fixed at Sambhal from the earliest times of Musalmán supremacy, and in the reign of the Emperor Akbar it gave its name to a Sirkár containing the three Dastúrs of Chándpur, Sambhal, and Lakhnor, and 47 maháls. Thákurdwára was formed into a parganah in the reign of Muhammad Shah by Mahendra Singh, grandson of Umedi Singh. Subsequently the district consisted of 24 parganahs, divided into 6 tahsíls. In May, 1844, these parganahs were distributed as at present, and in October, 1870, Káslipur and Jaspur were transferred to the Tarái district. The old name of Moradabad is Chaupahla.

The land revenue at the cession in 1803 was £135,646; at the first settlement it was raised to £193,573; and in 1808 to £239,759, but the district

then comprised Bijnor and the Tarái. The 3rd settlement was for four years from 1809 to 1812, the 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th were all for 5 years each, and in 1843 the 9th settlement was made for 30 years, and expired in 1872. The present settlement was begun in 1872, and will probably be finished in 1878. It has at present resulted in an increase from £201,944 to £260,288 or by £5,834, and it has cost £27,942.

In the earliest times Rohilkhand was called Katchir, and was the north-eastern part of Panchálá. Ahichatr in Bareilly was the capital, and it was ruled by Ahir kings, and Ahirs still possess all the south-east part of Moradabad. Hwen Tsang visited Káshipur and Ahichatr about 638 A.D., but he does not mention Sambhal. In 1265 Ghaias-ud-din Balban invaded the district and attacked Amroha, where he ordered a general massacre. In 1365 Firoz Toghlak invaded Kather, and attacked the chief Rae Kakara or Khargu, who had murdered the Musalman governor. Rae Kakara fled to Kumaon, and the Emperor plundered the country and left Mallik-khitab as governor. In 1403 Ibrahim, King of Jaunpur, conquered Sambhal, and placed his own deputy there; but in 1407 Muhammad Toghlak reconquered it, and expelled the Jaunpur governor. In 1473 Sultan Hussen of Jaunpur again occupied Sambhal, and kept it for some years. In 1498 the emperor Sikandar Lodi took it, and resided there for four years. In 1554 Ahya Maran, the governor of Sambhal, appears to have rebelled, for Sultan Muhammad Adil sent a force against him, which he completely defeated. In the mean time Rájá Mittar Sen Katheriya seized Sambhal, and Ahya Maran attacked him; a fierce battle was fought at Kundarkhi, under which the Rájá was totally defeated and fled: this was in 1555.

The Emperor Babar visited Sambhal in 1516, and it was governed by his deputy afterwards. In 1555 Humáiun appointed Ali Kuli Khan governor of Sambhal, and the latter defeated an incursion of the Katheriyas. In 1566 some Mirzas (descendants of Timur) rebelled and seized Akbar's officers, and confined them in the fort of Sambhal. Hussen Khan was ordered against them, and they fled to Amroha. He followed and they escaped across the Ganges. The emperor Sháhjahan appointed Rustam Khan, governor of Kather, and he founded Moradabad about 1625, at first calling it after his own name, but afterwards after that of Murád Shah, one of the princes, afterwards murdered by Alamgir. After Alamgir's death (1707) the Katheriyas revolted and became independent for a time, as the Musalmán governor was removed to Kanauj, but he was again appointed governor of Moradabad by Muhammad Shah in 1735, and Rohilkhand remained subject to the Delhi emperors till 1746. Moradabad, like the rest of the Rohilkand districts, was semi-independent under the Rohilla chiefs till

it fell to the Vazir of Oudh in 1744, and to the English in 1801 [see Bareilly].

In the mutiny of 1857 the news of the Meerut outbreak was received on the 12th May, and on the 18th the Muzaftarnagar rebels were captured, but on the 19th the 29th Native Infantry mutinied and broke open the jail : they did nothing more however, and on the 21st they and the artillery defeated an attack of a Rámpur mob. On the 31st the Rámpur Cavalry, who had gone to Bulandshahr returned, and the news of the Bareilly and Sháhjahánpur outbreaks arrived on the 1st June. On the 3rd the 29th fired on the officials, who then left the station and reached Meerut on the 5th. The Bareilly Brigade reached Moradabad on the 15th, and on the 22nd they and the Moradabad mutineers marched for Delhi. On the 29th the Nawáb of Rámpur took charge of the district for the English, but he had not much power. A man named Majju Khan was the *de facto* ruler till General Jones' Brigade arrived on April 25th, 1858, when he was hanged. On the 2nd May the brigade marched on Bareilly and took it ; and on the 12th Mr. Cracroft Wilson, the Judge of Moradabad, returned there with troops and took permanent possession of it.

25. *Administration*.—Moradabad is in the Commissionership of Rohilkand, and is the west-central district of that division. It is the seat of a civil and sessions judge, who has the district of Bijnor also under him.

(a) *Criminal and revenue*.—The ordinary staff of the district consists of a magistrate and collector, two joint magistrates. One assistant magistrate, and two deputy magistrates, there are six tahsildars or sub-magistrates and collectors, and nine special magistrates, with local powers. The two deputy collectors, the six sub-magistrates, and all the special magistrates are natives, the rest are Europeans. The magistrate, joint-magistrates, and one deputy magistrate have first-class powers ; the other deputy magistrate and the assistant either first or 2nd class, and the sub-magistrates and special magistrates either 2nd or 3rd class. There are also a settlement officer, an assistant settlement officer, a district superintendent of police, and a civil surgeon, who all have magisterial powers to some extent.

(b.) *Civil*.—The civil judge has under him one subordinate judge and seven munsiffs (five in Moradabad and two in Bijnor), or native courts of original civil jurisdiction at city Moradabad, environs Moradabad, Sambhal, Bilfari, and Amroha, and in Bijnor, at Bijnor, and Nagina.

In 1875 the total cost to the state of these civil courts was £8,411, and the amount realized by stamps and court fees £13,261. The number of cases decided by each class of courts was—

Civil courts	8,578
Criminal courts	3,658
Revenue courts	3,247

The average value of property under litigation was £13·5.

(c.) In the year 1875 the total strength of the district regular police force was 963. This number consisted of one district superintendent, 126 officers under the rank of inspector, 19 mounted, and 817 foot constables.

The cost of maintaining this force was £10,222. The total strength of the police is one man to every 2·55 square miles, and one man to every 1,165 persons in the total population; the cost of maintenance is equal to £4·1 per square mile or 2·1 per head of the population.

Jails—There are at Moradabad two places of confinement for prisoners—(1) the district jail and (2) the magistrate's lock-up.

(1.) The district jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 400·12 prisoners, of whom 381·76 were male and 18·36 females.

It is under the charge of the civil surgeon, who has under him a jailor and 30 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 37·8·4.

The average outturn of labour was Rs. 7 per head.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 1,357·2·9.

The rate of mortality was 4·83 per cent. of average strength.

(2.) The lock-up contained in 1875 a daily average of 44·00 under-trial prisoners.

(e.) *Postal and telegraph*.—There are 11 imperial and 12 local post-offices in Moradabad, and in 1876 there were ·64 letters per head of population, and 34·35 per educated man.

There are five telegraph offices in the district—one Government at Moradabad and four railway at the railway stations of Moradabad, Bilári, Chandausi, and Bahjoi.

26. *Revenue and finance*.—The district local funds amounted in 1875 to £17,854, and the expenditure to £14,302.

There are five municipalities in the district; of these the receipts and expenditure were as follows in 1875 :—

Municipality.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Incidence of taxation per head.
	£	£	Rs. a. p.
Moradabad ...	7,144	5,444	0 11 2
Dhanaura ...	679	488	0 12 9
Chandausi ...	4,049	3,169	0 8 5
Amroha ...	2,099	1,610	0 7 2
Sambhal ...	2,138	1,560	0 7 7

The whole amount of revenue raised in the district, including imperial, municipal, and local funds in 1876, was £198,915, or on a population of 1,167,016, an incidence per head of 34 shillings out of this £72,915, or 36·65 per cent. of the total receipts was returned to the district in payment for its administration.

The re-settlement of the land revenue was commenced in 1872, and will probably be finished in 1878. It has at present resulted in an increase from £201,944 to £260,288 or by £5.834, and it has cost £27,942.

27. *Medical statistics.*—There are five dispensaries in the district at Moradabad, Chandausi, Bilári, Amroha, and Sambhal.

During the year 1875, 40,188 persons were treated in these dispensaries, of whom 585 were in-door and 39,603 out-door patients. The total receipts were £688, and the expenditure on establishment £421.

The total number of deaths in the year 1875 was 23,240 or 20·71 per 1,000 of the population, the mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 during the previous six years was 21·03.

In 1875, 21,585 persons were vaccinated, and the operation was successful in 18,302 cases.

28. *Education.*—There were 404 schools in the district in 1875, with 8,792 scholars, which gives an average area of 5·62 square miles for each school, and a percentage of 78 scholars on the total population.

Of these schools 375 are male and 29 female. The total expenditure on them was £6,295, of which £2,058 was from provincial and £4,236 from local sources. The district is under the inspector of the 2nd or Meerut circle.

There are 8 Government talhsíli schools in the district, with 444 scholars, of whom 311 are Hindús and 133 Musalmáns. The average cost per scholar is 14s. 8d. per annum.

29. *Fairs and chief towns.*—There are 12 towns in the district, with more than 5,000 inhabitants, *viz.* :—

(1.)—Moradabad, the civil headquarters, situated on the right bank of the river Rámanga, and within 10 miles of the eastern border of the district.

It was founded by Rustam Khan in 1625, and named after Prince Murad Bakhsh, son of Shahjahán. Population, 62,417,—Hindús 31,888, Musalmáns 30,212; area 1,331 square acres. Municipal income £3,657. Taxation per head Rs. 0·9 4.

(2.)—Sambhal, on the Aligarh road, 22 miles south-west of Moradabad, and 4 miles west of the Sote river. Population, 46,974,—Hindús 18,417, Musalmáns 28,547; area 655 square acres; income £1,693; taxation Rs. 0·5·9.

(3.)—Amroha, on the Bijnor road, 20 miles north-west of Moradabad, and 4 miles south of the Bán river ; population, 34,904,—Hindús 10,253, Musalmáns 24,630 ; area 655 square acres ; income £1,413 ; taxation, Rs. 0-6-6.

(4.)—Chandausi, on the Budaun road, 28 miles due south of Moradabad, and 4 miles west of the Sote river ; population 23,686,—Hindús 17,832 Musalmáns 23,686 ; area 234 square acres ; income £2,654 ; taxation Re. 1-1-11.

(5.)—Hasanpur, 30 miles west of Moradabad, 8 miles south of the Meerut road, and 5 miles east of the Ganges.

Population 8,417,—Hindús 4,077, Musalmáns 4,340 ; area 124 square acres ; income £146 ; taxation Rs. 0-2-9.

(6.)—Kánt or Maunagar is 20 miles north-west of Moradabad and 2 miles east of the Gánjan river in the north-east corner of parganah Amroha.

Population 7,030,—Hindús, 4,001, Musalmans 3,029 ; area 108 square acres ; income £126 ; taxation Rs. 0-2-10.

(7.)—Dhanaura in the north-west corner of tahsíl Hasanpur, 33 miles west from Moradabad, and 9 miles east of the Ganges.

Population 5,287,—Hindús 4,651, Musalmáns 636 ; area 68 square acres ; income £911 ; taxation Re. 1-11-7 per head.

(8.)—Moghalpur, 7 miles north, north-west of Moradabad, and 1 mile west of the Rámganga in tahsíl Moradabad.

Population 5,334,—Hindús 2,211, Musalmáns 3,123 ; area 86 square acres ; income and taxation per head not known.

(9.)—Bhojpur in tahsíl Moradabad, 8 miles north of Moradabad, 1 mile east of the Dhela river. Population 5,121,—Hindus 1,272, Musalmáns 3,849 ; area 54 square acres ; income and taxation per head not known.

(10.)—Sirsi, 17 miles, south-west of Moradabad, and 3 miles east of the Sote river. Population 5,607,—Hindús 1,616, Musalmáns 3,991 ; area 100 square acres ; income £111 ; taxation Rs. 0-3-2 per head.

(11.)—Narauli in tahsíl Bilári, 23 miles south of Moradabad, and 5 miles east of the Sote river. Population 5,197,—Hindús 3,084, Musalmáns 2113 ; area 79 square acres ; income and taxation per head not known.

(12.)—Bachhraun in tahsíl Hasanpur, 33 miles west of Moradabad, and 7 miles east of the Ganges. Population 6,768,—Hindús 2,127, Musalmáns 4,641 ; area 83 square acres ; income £120 ; taxation Rs. 0-2-10 per head.

30. *Archæology.* (1.)—At Sambhal the ruins of the old city of Sambhal are still to be seen on the high mound on which the present town is built. The heaps of ruins known as Bhaleswar and Bikteswar are nothing more than the bastions on the old boundary of the city.

(2.)—At Moradabad are the fort of Rustam Khan, the founder, on the right bank of the Rámganga ; the Jumma Masjid built in 1634 ; and the tomb of Nawáb Azmat-ul-lah Khan, governor of Moradabad.

(3.)—At Amroha are the Basdeo tank and the tomb of Sheekh Saddu (Miah).

A. COTTERELL TUPP.

1-6-77.

MUTTRA.

M U T T R A

(MATHURA).

A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. Position and area.—The district of Muttra—bounded on the north by the district of Aligarh and the Panjáb district of Gurgáon, on the west by the native state of Bháratpur, on the south by Agra, and on the east by the districts of Mainpuri, Etah, and Aligarh—lies between north latitude $27^{\circ} 14' 30''$ and $27^{\circ} 58' 0''$, and between east longitude $77^{\circ} 19' 30''$ and $78^{\circ} 33' 0''$, and contains an area of 1,611 square miles and a population of 887,689, or 551 to the square mile. In this notice all measurements and figures are given according to the census report of 1872, which included the parganah of Jalesar, which was afterwards, in 1874, made over to the Agra district.

2. Subdivisions.—The district is divided into six tahsílis or sub-collectories and six parganahs, as follows, proceeding from north to south :—

Tahsíli.	Parganah.	Revenue.
1. Kosi		15,118
2. Chháta		17,730
3. Mat Noh-Jhil		23,772
4. Mathura Aring	Ditto	21,534
5. Mahában		28,850
6. Sádabad		31,348
	Total ...	138,354

3. Physical geography and boundaries.—The district is an irregular oblong in shape, with the parganah of Sádabad stretching out from its south-east corner. The river Jumna runs right through the quadrangular portion of the district from north to south, leaving about two-thirds of this portion on the western side of the river and one-third on the eastern. This portion is about 40 miles long by 30 broad, and the projecting part (Sádabad) is about 18 by 10 miles. The city of Muttra is in the southern part of the quadrangular portion, about 10 miles from the southern border. The cis-Jumna portion of the district

comprises the parganahs of Mat Noh-Jhil, Mahában, and Sádabad, and the trans-Jumna portion those of Muttra, Chháta, and Kosi, so that there are three sub-collectorates in each portion. The eastern or *cis*-Jumna portion of the district is a fair specimen of the ordinary character of the Doáb, and is abundantly watered, mainly by wells and rivers, but partly by the Ganges Canal, and is carefully cultivated. Its luxuriant crops and fine orchards indicate the fertility of the soil, but it possesses few historical associations. The trans-Jumna portion, on the other hand, though comparatively poor in natural products, is rich in mythological legend and antiquarian remains. The kingdom of Muttra appears always to have consisted of two very different parts, and it at one time probably included portions of the present districts of Agra and Mainpuri. The quadrangular portion of the district is almost absolutely identical with the Bráj-Mandal of Hindu topography—the circuit of 84 kos round Gokal and Brindában, where the divine brothers Krishna and Balaram grazed their herds.¹ The aspect of the country is disappointing, and the soil, being poor and thin, is unfavourable to the growth of most large forest trees. The dust is deep on every road and field, and is stirred by the slightest air into an impenetrable haze. The Jumna during eight months is a mere rivulet, meandering through a desert of sand and bounded by monotonous flats of arable land, or by high banks which the contributory torrents have broken and cracked into ugly chasms and stony ravines, naked of all vegetation. There are hill ranges at Gobardhan and Barsána, and along the Bháratpur frontier, but there are few peaks of conspicuous height, and the general outline is tame and unimpressive. In the rains, however, when all pilgrimages are made, the Jumna is a mighty stream, a mile or more broad ; the torrents and lakes with which the district abounds are filled to overflowing, the rocks and hills are clothed with green foliage, and the dusty plain is converted into a verdant sward. Up to a very recent period nearly the whole of this large area was pasture and woodland, and many of the villages are still surrounded with belts of trees ; but since the great famine of 1838 land has begun to be largely reclaimed, partly from the number of new roads which were then opened out as relief works.

4. Rivers. (1) The Jumna. The only river of any importance in the district is the Jumna, and this up to recent times was of course the great highway of traffic, and almost all the larger towns are situated near it. From the point where it enters the district at Chaundrás in the north of parganah Kosi to a point eight miles south of Muttra it separates five parganahs from one another, and after that it divides the Agra from the Muttra district for 36 milos, till it leaves the

¹ Growse, Mathura, p. 47.

latter at Mandaur in the south of parganah Sádabad. For the first 9 miles of its course it separates parganah Kosi from parganah Mát Noh-Jhil; for the next 24 miles it divides Chháta from Mat Noh-Jhil, and then for 8 miles the latter from Muttra parganah ; for the next 19 miles it separates Muttra from parganah Mahában, passing Brindában and Muttra on the right bank, and Gokul and Mahában on the left. It then leaves the district, and has parganahs Mahában and Sádabad on its north bank, and the Agra district on the south for 36 miles : its total course while in contact with this district is just 100 miles. During eight months of the year the Jumna is only a small stream, meandering sluggishly between wide expanses of sand, but for the four months of the rainy season it is a great river, a mile or more broad, which rushes along with a deep and swift current. The only other rivers in the district are—

(2.) The Karwan Naddi, which passes through the middle of parganah Sádabad : it enters near Kajarothi, four miles north-west of Sádabad, and flowing past that town a little east of it, leaves the district near Raepura, 5 miles south-east of Sádabad, having in all a course of 9 miles in the district.

(3.) The Sengur Naddi, in the east of parganah Jalesar (now in Agra), rises in the north-east of the parganah near Hadidápur, flows 10 miles to the south-east, and leaves the district near Áwá in the south-east of the parganah.

(4.) The Sirsa Naddi flows down from the Háthras parganah of the Ali-garh district, enters Jalesar parganah (now in Agra) at Khera Gwaran in the north-west of the parganah, flows 20 miles south-east, past Jalesar, to Rajauli, where it leaves the district. It also has a branch coming down from Banwáripur in the north of the parganah, flowing 9 miles due south, and joining the main stream 5 miles below Jalesar. This branch has also a contributory which, rising near Pikathra in the extreme north of the parganah, flows through the Narholi lake and joins the former branch at Budhaira 4 miles north-east of Jalesar.

There are no rivers or streams of any kind in the trans-Jumna parganahs of Kosi, Chháta, and Mathura.

5. *Lakes.*—There are three jhils or lakes in the Jalesar parganah, which now belongs to Agra ; but there is only one of any size in the present district of Muttra, and that is the great Noh-Jhil which gives its name to the parganah of Mat Noh-Jhil.

The three in Jalesar are all in the north-east corner of the parganah, and are in a line running north-west and south-east from Pikathra to Áwá, parallel to the Ganges Canal. The first is west of Narholi, the second west of great Misa, and the third north of Áwá. The Noh-Jhil is in the north of parganah Mat

Noh-Jhil, about 2 miles east of the Jumna, and one mile north of the town of Noh-Jhil. It is $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles long by $1\frac{1}{2}$ broad, and in the rains swells to a considerably larger extent.

In Sádabad the few jhíls which exist are small in extent and dry up early in the cold season : the soil around them is stiffer and more argillaceous than the rest. Irrigation from jhíls or lakes is unknown, as the shallow pools scattered about the district dry up too quickly to be of any use.

6. *Forests and waste lands.*—Till the close of the sixteenth century the whole district, except in the immediate neighbourhood of the one great thoroughfare from Dehli to Agra, was a tract of unreclaimed woodland, with only here and there a scattered hamlet in the midst : but of all this very little remains now. There are 700 acres of forest near Bisáwar on the Muttra and Kandauli road, and there is a good deal of waste land along the western border from Gobardhan to Barsána and northwards, where low rocky hills crop out above the surface of the ground. Wood is scarce all over the district, and there is no timber wood worth mentioning.

In Sádabad there is little real úsar, and the patches of waste which still remain unbroken are often covered with scrubby jungle, and sometimes with dhák trees.

In Muttra and Mahában the Jumna ravines are very extensive, wide, deep, and rugged, and render a great deal of land unfit for cultivation, but in Chháta, Kosi, and Noh-Jhil they are not so important as in the southern parganahs, and sometimes entirely disappear.¹

7. *Geology.*—The whole of the district is an alluvial plain situated on both sides of the Jumna and draining into it. The only portion in which there is any rocky area is in the extreme west at Gobardhan and Barsána. At the latter the limestone ridge rises abruptly from the plain to a height of 200 feet, and runs in a south-westerly direction for about a quarter of a mile. At Gobardhan there is a narrow range of limestone hills, which rise suddenly from the alluvial land around and stretch away in a south-easterly direction for a distance of 4 or 5 miles, with an average elevation of about 100 feet. The depth of water varies considerably; in the central table-lands it ranges from 40 to 60 feet; along the hills in the west it is found at from 25 to 40 feet, whilst in the uplands along the Jumna it is often not more than 20 feet from the surface.

8. *Climate.*—The average total rainfall was 23·6 inches for the ten years from 1860 to 1869 ; during this period the maximum was 37·0 inches in 1867,

¹McConaghay's Settlement Report, Chháta, p. 2.

and the minimum was 11.3 inches in 1860. The climate is dry and hot, the district being one of the most westerly in the North-Western Provinces, and consequently near to the sandy deserts to the west. The extremes of temperature are great, the cold in the cold weather being severe, and the heat in the hot weather intense. The rainy season commences about the 1st of July and continues till the end of September ; October is hot and generally dry, and the cold season begins in November, and continues till the end of March; it is then followed by the hot season during April, May, and June. The hot west wind blows during these three months with great violence. The climate is on the whole healthy, and this is perhaps chiefly due to its dryness: there are no large masses of water, and the streams and small ponds dry up rapidly, directly the annual rains are over.

9. *Minerals and trees.*—A kind of bastard sandstone fit for building purposes is found at Barsána and Nandgáon on the western border of the district, and also at Gobardhan; but at the latter place the Hindús will not allow it to be quarried. Most of the sandstone employed in Mathura, Brindában, and Gobardhan is brought from the Rup-bás and other quarries in Bháratpur territory. There is no real limestone in the district, but kankar or nodular limestone is common, and the best comes from Sádabad.

Trees.—The following trees are found in the district :—

- (1.) ¹ *Amalas.*—*Cassia fistula.*
- (2.) ¹ *Anla.*—*Emblica officinalis*—aonla tree.
- (3.) *Asok.*—*Jonesia asoca.*
- (4.) *Babil (Babool).*—*Acacia arabica.*
- (5.) *Bakáyan (Bakain).*—*Melia sempervirens.*
- (6.) *Bar.*—*Ficus Bengalensis*—bargad tree.
- (7.) ¹ *Bel.*—*Ægle Marmelos*—an astringent.
- (8.) *Ber.*—*Zizyphus jujuba*—fruit tree.
- (9.) ¹ *Champa.*—*Michelia champaka.*—The champak tree with yellow blossoms.
- (10.) *Dhák.*—*Butea frondosa.*—Scarlet flowers in March.
- (11.) *Gúlar.*—*Ficus racemosa.*
- (12.) *Imli.*—*Tamarindus Indica*—the tamarind tree.
- (13.) ¹ *Jáman.*—*Syzigium jambolanum.*
- (14.) *Kachnár.*—*Bauhinia variegata.*—Pink flowers.
- (15.) *Kadamb.*—*Nauclea kadamba.*
- (16.) ¹ *Karl.*—*Capparis aphylla.*

¹These do not grow wild.

(17.) *Khajúr*.—*Phœnix sylvestris*—Date tree.
 (18.) ¹*Khirni*.—*Mimusops Kanki*.
 (19.) *Labera*.—*Cordia myxa*.
 (20.) *Lasora*.—,, *latifolia*.
 (21.) *Mahúa (Mhowa)*.—*Bassia latifolia*—fruit and timber tree.
 (22.) *Nim*.—*Melia Azadirachta*.
 (23.) *Nim Chambeli*.—*Millingtonia Hortensis*—the myrtle nim.
 (24.) *Pipal*.—*Ficus religiosa*.
 (25.) *Remja*.—*Acacia Farnesiana*.
 (26.) *Sahajna (Sainjna)*.—*Hyperanthera Morunga*—the horse-radish tree.
 (27.) *Shah-tút*.—*Morus Indica*—timber tree, mulberry.
 (28.) *Shisham (Sissoo)*.—*Dalbergia Sissoo*—timber tree.
 (29.) *Siris (Sirsa)*.—*Acacia speciosa*.

10. *Animals and birds*.—The fauna of the district are the same as those of the other western districts, such as Agra, under which head a complete list of birds, animals, and fish is given.

Antelope are exceedingly abundant, and wolves, foxes, leopards, and hyenas are found in the hilly tracts to the west. Wild-boar, hare, blue-bulls, and jackals are also more or less common throughout the district.

All the domestic animals common in Northern India are used here, and the camel, as in other western districts, is exceedingly useful as a beast of burthen. There is no special breed of cattle or horses.

11—13. *Population, Religions, and Castes*.—In the census of 1872 there were 1,611 square miles in the Muttra district, with 972 mauzas, 188,975 houses, and a population of 887,689; there were 551 persons and .6 villages to the square mile, 913 persons per village, and 4·6 persons per house. There were 22,839 masonry houses and 166,136 mud ones.

Of the sexes there were 480,615 males and 406,740 females.

The numbers of each religion and sex were as follows :—

Hindus	{ Males	440,939
	{ Females	<u>372,056</u>
	Total	812,995
Muslims	{ Males	39,667
	{ Females	<u>34,680</u>
	Total	74,347

¹Does not grow wild.

Christians ...	Males	
	Females	4
	Total	...	13	

The percentages of each sex and religion on the total population were as follows :—

Hindús	91·6	Males	54·2
Musalmáns	8·4	Females	45·8

There were 2·7 persons per cent. above 60 years of age, and 13,350 males able to read and write ; the total agricultural population was 442,312.

The area of assessed land was 1,423 square miles, of which 144 were uncultivable, 89 cultivable, and 1,189 cultivated, and there were besides 64 square miles of uncultivable unassessed land.

The amount of land revenue was £166,001, the rates and cesses on land £17,898, and the incidence of the land revenue per culturable acre was Rs. 2-0-5. The percentage of agricultural on total population was 49·8.

The numbers of the chief Hindú castes and Musalmán tribes were as follows :—

Hindús	Brahmans	148,762
	Rájputs	76,100
	Baniah	52,822
	Ahirs	16,487
	Chamárs	138,123
	Kayaths	5,062
Musalmáns	Kurmis	2,027
	Shekhs	54,688
	Saiads	2,100
	Mughals	619
	Pathans	8,553

The numbers of males above 15 in each of the six great classes of occupations were :—

Professional	5,179
Domestic	31,105
Commercial	16,209
Agricultural	156,575
Industrial	37,494
Indefinite	57,829
			Total	...
			304,391	

There were altogether 972 inhabited villages and towns, of which 160 contained less than 200 inhabitants ; 322 less than 500 ; 261 less than 1,000 ; 150

less than 2,000; 44 less than 3,000; 24 less than 5,000; 7 less than 10,000; 2 less than 20,000; and 2 more than 20,000.

The following figures show the comparative results of the censuses of 1853, 1865, and 1872.

Area.—This was 1,613 square miles in 1853, 1,612 in 1865, and 1,611 in 1872: it therefore decreased by one square mile, or .062 per cent., in the first twelve years, and by one square mile, or .06 per cent., in the latter seven years, the total increase in the nineteen years being two square miles, or .12 per cent.

Population.—The total population was 862,909 in 1853, 802,702 in 1865, and 887,689 in 1872: it therefore decreased by 60,207, or 7.5 per cent., from 1853 to 1865, and increased by 84,987, or 10.5 per cent., from 1865 to 1872, and increased by 24,780, or 2.8 per cent., in the whole nineteen years from 1853 to 1872.

We therefore find that in the former period it decreased at the rate of .62 per cent. per annum, while in the latter it increased at the rate of 1.5 per cent. per annum, so that over the whole period of nineteen years the rate of increase was .14 per cent. per annum.

This district, like so many others, decreased considerably during the first period, and more than regained this loss during the second period.

Sex.—There were of males in 1853, 46,967; in 1865, 436,985; and 480,615 in 1872: they therefore decreased in the first period by 26,982, or 6.1 per cent., and increased in the second by 43,630, or 9.9 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 16,648, or 3.6 per cent.

There were of females in 1853, 398,942; in 1865, 365,717; and in 1872, 406,740: they therefore decreased in the first period by 33,225, or 9.08 per cent., and increased in the second by 41,023, or 11.2 per cent., while on the whole nineteen years the increase was 7,798, or 1.9 per cent.

The proportion of males to females was about—

1.16 to 1 in 1853.

1.19 „ 1 „ 1865.

1.18 „ 1 „ 1872.

The proportion of males therefore slightly increased between 1853 and 1865, and then very slightly decreased again till 1872.

The males decreased by 6.1 per cent. in the first period, and increased by 9.9 in the second, or by 3.6 on the whole. The females decreased by 9.08 in the first period, and increased by 11.2 in the second, or by 1.9 on the whole: so that in the first period the females decreased half as fast again as the males,

while in the second they increased rather more than 1 per cent. faster, but on the whole they increased 1·7 less than the males.

The annual rates were :—

	<i>Decrease per cent.</i>		<i>Increase per cent.</i>	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
In the first period ...	·5	·75		
In the second period	·14 ·18	·6 ·1
In the whole period		

Religion.—There were 792,959 Hindús in 1853, 733,369 in 1865, and 812,995 in 1872 : they therefore decreased in the first period by 59,590, or 8·1 per cent., and increased in the second by 79,626, or 10·8 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years by 20,036, or 2·5 per cent.

There were 69,950 Musalmáns in 1853, 66,952 in 1865, and 74,347 in 1872 : they therefore decreased in the first period by 2,998, or 4·5 per cent., and increased in the second by 7,395, or 11·04 per cent., while the increase on the whole nineteen years was 4,397, or 6·2 per cent.

The proportions of Hindús to Musalmáns were—

11·33 to 1 in 1853.

10·95 „ 1 „ 1865.

10·93 „ 1 „ 1872.

So that the proportion of Hindús diminished slightly between 1853 and 1865, and then again very slightly till 1872. The Hindús decreased in the first period by 8·1 per cent., and increased in the second by 10·8, or on the whole by 2·5 per cent. The Musalmáns decreased by 4·5 in the first period, and increased by 11·04 in the second, or by 6·2 on the whole : so that in the first period the Hindús decreased nearly twice as fast as the Musalmáns, while the Musalmáns increased very slightly faster than the Hindús during the second period, but nearly three times as fast as the Hindús on the whole.

Land revenue.—In 1853 the land revenue was Rs. 16,57,283, in 1865 Rs. 16,54,452, and in 1872 Rs. 16,60,010 : it therefore decreased by Rs. 2,831, or 1·7 per cent., during the first period, and increased in the second by Rs. 5,558, or 3 per cent., while the total increase on the whole nineteen years was Rs. 2,727, or 0·16 per cent. The decrease was therefore ·14 per cent. per annum in the first period, while the increase was ·043 in the second, and ·08 in the whole nineteen years.

Number of mauzas.—This was 1,019 in 1853, 1,027 in 1865, and only 972 in 1872. The mauzas therefore increased by 8, or 0·78 per cent., from

1853 to 1865, and diminished by 55, or 5·6 per cent., from 1865 to 1872 ; the total diminution in number in the whole nineteen years being 47, or 4·8 per cent., or 2 per cent. per annum.

Persons per square mile.—In 1853 there were 535 persons per square mile ; in 1865, 498 ; and in 1872, 541 : the density of population therefore decreased by 37 in the first period of twelve years, or by 7·4 per cent., or 61 per cent. per annum ; it increased by 43 during the second period of seven years, or by 8·6 per cent., or 1·2 per cent. per annum, and increased by 6, or 1·1 per cent., or 06 per cent. per annum in the whole period of nineteen years. Muttra therefore increased less than any district in the Meerut or Rohilkhand divisions, and four times less than any other district except two—Dehra and Muzaffarnagar.

14. *Town and village population.*—The villages in Muttra, though large, are meanly built, and betray the untidiness characteristic of Jâts and Gûjars, who form the bulk of the population. From a distance they are often picturesque, being built on the slope of natural or artificial mounds, and thus gaining dignity by elevation. On nearer approach they are found to consist of labyrinths of the narrowest lanes winding between the mud walls of large enclosures, which are rather cattle-yards than houses. At the base of the hill is ordinarily a broad circle of waste land studded with low trees, which afford grateful shade and pasturage to the cattle ; while the large pond from which the earth was dug to form the village site supplies them throughout the year with water.¹

There are nine towns with a population of more than 5,000, viz., Muttra, Brindâban, Chhâta, Shergarh, Kosi, Mahâban, Bisâwar, Kursandah, and Surir, besides the two, Jalesar and Awâ, in Jalesar parganah, which has now been transferred to Agra. Of these four contain more than 10,000 inhabitants and may be considered large towns, but only Muttra contains more than 50,000 and ranks as a city. The aggregate population of these eleven towns is 150,279, so that as the total population of the district, including Jalesar, is 887,689, one-sixth of the whole population may be said to be urban.

Out of the total of 972 towns and villages, 160, or one-sixth, had less than 200 inhabitants, and 482, or one-half, had less than 500 inhabitants ; so that taking these facts with that of only one-sixth of the population living in large towns, it may fairly be said that more than half of the population resides in small villages and hamlets ; but this is a very different result from what was found in the eastern districts, where four-fifths or six-sevenths of the population

¹Growse, Muttra, p. 48.

were generally found residing in small villages. There are now no walled towns or fortified places in the district.

15. *Value of house and furniture.*—The cost of building a house of the best class may be considered to be from £200 upwards, of the second class from £15 to £150, and of the third class from £1 to £10.

A trader's house of the better class contains generally about £50 worth of furniture and utensils of all kinds. Bedsteads, mattrasses, quilts, carpets, and boxes would represent about £30 worth of this, and cooking vessels the remainder.

A well-tô-do cultivator owns a few strong boxes and bedsteads and quilts worth about £10, besides cooking vessels worth £5 or £6.

An artizan in middling circumstances possesses one or two mattrasses, bedsteads, and quilts, and some drinking vessels, worth altogether about £3.

A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars, one or two quilts, and perhaps a cot, worth in all 10 shillings to a pound.

In Muttra itself and in Brindában there are of course houses of the largest size and greatest value, but in the villages the houses are small and poor, roughly built of mud, and tiled or thatched with coarse grass.

16. *Trades-unions.*—As in other districts, there are no organized trades-unions in the English sense of the word, but the powerful caste pancháyats answer very much the same purpose, though they have a much wider field of action than an English trades-union has. Goldsmiths, grain dealers, cloth merchants, and other traders have guilds which regulate their trade customs.

Redistribution, according to ancestral shares, of land held in separate possession is almost always effected by pancháyats of the brotherhood, and can seldom be enforced by our courts. Questions and disputes of a domestic nature or affecting the social arrangements of classes and castes, disputes regarding petty debts, or the occupancy of land for tillage, are settled by pancháyats.

17. *Village communities.*—The villages in this district cannot, as in nearly all in the North-West, be classified into zamindári, pattidári, and imperfect pattidári. Such a classification would be misleading, for the tenures, particularly of the trans-Jumna parganahs, could not be brought within the accepted definitions. Although all village communities are governed by the customs of the brotherhood (*bhaiachára*), these customs vary so greatly in different villages that some of them would, under the usual definition, be classified as zamindári, while others would be imperfect pattidári (see "Allahabad"). It is therefore better to divide all the villages into two classes.

(1) Zamindári, where the estate is undivided, and owned by one or more persons who manage it in common, each person's share in the profits being allotted to him according to his ancestral share.

(2) Bhaiachára, where the estate is owned by a cultivating village community, in which the payment of village burdens and the distribution of the profits of the estate are regulated by the custom of the brotherhood.

These latter are subdivided into those where ancestral shares are unknown, and those in which they are known and are more or less acted on. Where they are unknown, a proprietor's rights in the estate are measured either by his actual cultivating possession, or else by his separate possession as entered in the village records : where they are known, the separate possession is almost always recorded in the village papers.

In this district by far the greater number of estates are split up into infinitesimal fractions among the whole village community : the small farmers who cultivate their own lands form a very large class, while the total of the non-proprietary classes is very much reduced. A decided majority of the latter have no assured status, but are merely tenants-at-will.

18. *Condition of the people.*—Among the Hindús of the district the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the first class, or having incomes over £100 a year, £96 to £180 ; (2) for those in the second class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 a year, about £18 to £60 ; and (3) for those in the third class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns it would be rather more, as their habits are somewhat more expensive.

The mass of the population is fairly well off : the last settlement of the land revenue was not severe, and has not pressed hardly on the landowners, and these in consequence have not had the same reason to exact high rents as those in other districts have had. Of late years there has been no very severe famine and the harvests have been good, the peasant is therefore on the whole perhaps better off than in most other districts.

19. *Character of the soil.*—All the land brought under the plough is classified under two heads according to—(1) its productiveness, (2) its accessibility.

The fields capable of artificial irrigation are styled *chádi*, all others *kháki*; those nearest the village are *bárd*, those rather more remote *mánjhá*, and the furthest away *barkú*.

The combinations of the two classes give six varieties, and ordinarily no others are recognized ; but along the Jumna the alluvial land is called *kadar*, the high sterile 'banks *banjar*, and the ravines *behar*, while a very sandy soil is *bhir*.

The Agra Canal, which traverses the whole of the west of the district from the northern border through Kosi, Sahár, and Aring to the southern border, will add greatly to the fertility of that part of the district.

In the western parganahs there is generally a narrow belt of sand about 3 to 5 miles from the western border ; then comes the ordinary light but strong loam which prevails till the system of sand hills which skirt the Jumna is reached. As these are approached the soil becomes much lighter, till near the river it ends in pure sand. The loam is friable and easily worked, and yet has enough clay to give it body.

20. *Course of tillage*.—There are two harvests, the kharif or autumn one, and the rabbi or spring one. The kharif crops are sown in June or July, directly the first rain falls, and are harvested in October and November, and some of the rice in September, or even as early as the end of August ; but cotton is not ripe for picking till February. Besides cotton and rice they include bájra, jowár, mot, &c. The rabbi crops are sown in October and November, and reaped in March and April : they consist of corn, barley, oats, vetch and peas, and dál or arhar. Sometimes a crop of rice is taken in the autumn, and another crop of some kind in the spring.

Tank water is not used for irrigation, and there are no small streams, while the Jumna is too far below the surface of the land to be used, so that wells and canals are the only instruments of irrigation. The cultivation is on the whole poor, from the lightness of the assessment, the character of the people, and the scantiness of the population. In Chháta more than half the crop area is occupied by jowár and cotton, nearly two-thirds is sown for the autumn harvest, while gram and barley form more than three-fourths of the spring crop. These require but little skill or trouble in their cultivation and are unirrigated. The more valuable crops, as sugarcane, tobacco, indigo, and vegetables, are practically unknown, and only 5,000 acres are under wheat.

21. *Years of scarcity*.—Muttra has on several occasions suffered severely from drought and famine. In 1813 Sahar, the central western parganah, was one of the localities where the distress was most intense. Many persons died from hunger, and some sold their wives and families for a few rupees or a meal. In 1825-26 all the western districts suffered from a terrible drought, and in this

district Mahában and Jalesar (then in Muttra) were the parganahs in which it was most intense.

The famine of 1837-38 was still worse, and in the eastern parganahs of Mát, Mahában, and Ráya the distress was extreme : the south-west of the district about Muttra, Aríng, and Gobardhan was nearly as bad.

In 1860-61 only half the land usually cultivated was irrigated, and only the irrigated portion produced anything. Many of the poorer cultivators left the district towards the close of 1860, and only one-fourth of them returned. The deaths from starvation averaged 497 a month in the first three months, and 85 in the next three months of 1861, but in July and August they fell to 5 : altogether about 2,500 persons died of starvation.

22. *Communications and trade.* (1) *Railways.*—(a) The East Indian Railway traverses parganah Sadabad on its extreme eastern border, and has one station in its course of $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles, viz., Manikpur or Jalesar road ; (b) the light railway, which is intended eventually to connect the East Indian Railway with Bháratpur, is at present constructed from Háthras road station on the East Indian Railway through Háthras to Muttra, a distance of 29 miles, on the metre gauge system. It has five stations—at Háthras road, Háthras city ($5\frac{1}{2}$ miles), Mursán (7), Ráya ($9\frac{1}{2}$), and Muttra (7).

(2) *Metalled roads.* There are ten metalled roads in the district aggregating 176 miles, viz.—

(a) The Agra and Dehli road, running from Kotban, in the north of parganah Kosi, through Kosi, Chháta, and Muttra to Aurangabad in the south of parganah Muttra, $40\frac{1}{2}$ miles. This is the main route through the district, and is of course bridged throughout.

(b) The Muttra and Bharatpur road, running from Muttra, 14 miles south-west, to Rasúlpur on the border.

(c) The Háthras road, running from Muttra, $14\frac{3}{4}$ miles due west, to Sonai on the Aligarh border.

(d) The Agra and Háthras road, running through parganah Sadabad from Kunjauli to Garhi Ahvaran for 11 miles.

(e) The Muttra and Dig road, running through Gobardhan for $17\frac{1}{2}$ miles due west to Ganthauli on the Bharatpur border.

(f) The Muttra and Brindában road, running parallel to the Jumna for 6 miles.

(g) The Chháta and Shergarh road, running from Chháta north-east to Shergarh on the Jumna, 8 miles.

(h) The Muttra and Jalesar road, running from Muttra through Gokul, Mahában, Báládeva, and Sadabad to Jalesar, $41\frac{1}{2}$ miles.

(i) Branch road from the Háthras road towards Aligarh, only $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile in this district.

(j) Etah and Agra road from Awa to Umargarh in parganah Jalesar (now in Agra), 12 miles.

(3) *Unmetalled roads.*—There are ten 1st class unmetalled roads more or less raised and bridged and aggregating 115 miles. These are—Muttra to Sonkh, 14 ; Chhátá to Gobardhan, 16 ; Jait to Sahár, 8 ; Jait to Shergarh, 14 ; Kosi to Shergarh and Noh-Jhil, 16 ; Ráya to Báládeva, 10 ; Jalesar to Awa, 11 ; Jalesar to Sikandra Rao road, 8 ; Jalesar to Háthras road, 12 ; Jait to Brindában, 6. There are 414 miles of 2nd class unmetalled roads not raised or bridged.

23. *Money-lending, wages, and prices.*—The rates of interest at present (1877) charged in the district are as follows :—

(a) In small transactions, when articles are pawned, from 12 to 15 per cent.

(b) In small transactions, when personal security is given, from 18 to 37 per cent.

(c) In large transactions, when jewels, &c., are pledged, from 6 to 12 per cent.

(d) When bankers lend money to bankers on personal security, 6 to 9 per cent.

(e) When land is mortgaged, from 9 to 18 per cent.

The rates of wages are as follows :—

(a) Coolies and unskilled labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ pence a day.

(b) Agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 pence a day.

(c) Bricklayers and carpenters, 6 pence to 2 shillings a day.

Female labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men.

Boys of from 12 to 16 get two-thirds of the wages of full-grown men; boys younger than that and girls from one-half to one-third.

The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1867 were as follows :—

Number of seers (2lbs.) per rupee (2s.)

	1st April.	1st August.	1st December.	Average.
Wheat	26
Rice	...	8	...	9
Juar	...	30	...	32
Bajra	...	30	...	30
Dál	...	26	33	29

24. *History.*—Muttra, though associated with the history of the Bharatpur Játs for many centuries, has no separate history of its own till the rise of Súraj Mal.

In 1712 Badan Sinh, Súraj Mal's father, was proclaimed leader of the Játs, and lived at Sahár, where he built a handsome mansion for himself. When he grew old he gave the south-west portion of Bharatpur to his younger son, Partab Sinh, and all the rest of the Ját country, including Muttra, to his eldest son, Súraj Mal. At his father's death Súraj Mal moved to Bharatpur and assumed the title of rájá. In 1748 he was invited by the Emperor Ahmad Shah to join with Holkar under the command of the Vazír Safdar Jang in suppressing the rebellion of the Rohillas. Subsequently a dispute arose between Safdar Jang and Gházi-ud-din, the grandson of the old Nizám. Safdar Jang openly revolted against the empire and called in the assistance of Súraj Mal and his Játs, while Gházi-ud-din obtained the help of the Mahrattas. Safdar Jang, however, retreated to Oudh, and Bharatpur was besieged by Gházi-ud-din. He, however, soon mistrusted his allies, the Mahrattas, and returned hastily to Dehli, where he deposed Ahmad Shah and raised Álamgír II. to the throne instead in 1754.

In 1757 Ahmad Shah Duráni from Candahár invaded India, and appeared before Dehli, whence he levied a heavy tribute. Gházi-ud-din himself collected that in the Doáb, but in Muttra it was levied by Sardár Jahán Khán, who, finding that the inhabitants all withdrew into their forts, fell back on the city of Muttra, plundered it of all its wealth, and massacred the inhabitants.

In 1759 the Emperor Álamgir II. was murdered, and Ahmad Shah Duráni again attacked Dehli. Gházi-ud-din fled to Muttra and Bharatpur, and there created a Hindu confederacy of Játs and Mahrattas which marched against Ahmad Shah, but was finally defeated and destroyed by him in the great battle of Pánipat in January, 1761. Suraj Mal, however, withdrew his forces before the battle, marched on Agra, ejected the Mahrattas, and took up his residence there. Ahmad Shah had placed Shah Alam on the throne of Dehli, and the Rohilla Najib-ud-daula was the vazir at Dehli. Súraj Mal determined to try his strength against him, and marched to Shadera, 6 miles from Dehli, but here he was surprised by a small party of the enemy, captured, and put to death. His army coming up afterwards, was defeated and dispersed in 1764. His son Jawáhir Sinh succeeded him, and marched against Jaipur, but was defeated, and in 1765 was murdered at Agra. The second son, Ratn Sinh, was also murdered, and the third, Nawal Sinh, succeeded. In 1768 the Mahrattas invaded Bharatpur and levied a considerable fine, but in 1772 they became allies

with the Jâts against the imperialists, and marched against Dehli, but there the Mahrattas went over to the emperor's side. The Jâts joined Zabita Khán in his rebellion, but were defeated before Dehli and driven out of Agra, which they had held since 1761. The Vazír Najaf Khán pursued them and finally drove them out of Kosi, and utterly routed them near Dig at Barsána. Nawal Sinh, the third son, now died (1776), and the fourth son, Ranjít Sinh, was allowed to retain only Bharatpur and a small territory worth nine lakhs a year.

The Vazír Najaf Khán died in 1782, and Sindhia succeeded him. He was opposed by the Rájput chiefs of Jaipur, Jodhpur, and Udepur, who defeated him at Lalsot. Sindhia fell back on the Jâts, and secured Ranjít's alliance by giving back Dig and territory worth ten lakhs a year. He and the Jâts then marched on Agra, which was held by Sindhia's garrison, and was besieged by Ismáil Beg and Ghulám Kádir ; and in 1788 they drove off the besiegers and raised the siege, and Muttra and Agra again fell under Sindhia's rule. Ghulám Kádir went to Dehli, rebelled and tortured the emperor, blinding him with his own dagger. Sindhia was at Muttra, and sent a force against him. Ghulám Kadir fled to Meerut, was captured and sent to Sindhia at Muttra, where he was blinded and mutilated (to retaliate for his treatment of the emperor), and finally put to death.

In 1803 Ranjít Sinh joined Lord Lake in the Mahratta war with 5,000 Ját horse, and when Sindhia was defeated received the south-west of Muttra and Kishngarh and Rewári as a reward. In 1804, after the battle of Dig, Holkar fled to Bharatpur, and Ranjít refused to give him up, so Bharatpur was besieged. Ranjít resisted gallantly, but at last surrendered on the 4th May, 1805. He had to pay a fine of thirteen lakhs and was deprived of all the territory given to him in 1803. He died the same year, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Randhír, who reigned till 1823, when the second son, Báládeva, succeeded, but only lived 18 months. His child, Balavant, was recognized by the British, but his cousin, Durjan Lal, rebelled and imprisoned him, and a British force was sent against Bharatpur, which was again besieged, and was taken by Lord Combermere after six weeks on the 18th January, 1826. Durjan Lál was taken a prisoner to Allahabad, and Balavant placed on the throne under a regency. He lived till 1853, when he was succeeded by Jaswant Sinh, the present ruler.

Mutra, like other districts, soon became involved in the mutiny of 1857. The first news of it received there was that the Meerut mutineers were marching on Agra : this was on the 14th May. On the 16th Captain Nixon brought

in some Bharatpur troops, and on the 19th he and Mr. Thornhill, the magistrate, marched for Dehli. On the 26th the force reached Hodal, in Gurgaon, but Mr. Thornhill remained at Kosi.

On the 30th May the sepoys sent to take the treasure from Muttra into Agra mutinied, and the English officials escaped to Kosi, and thence joined the force at Hodal. The mutineers marched on Dehli, and when they reached Kosi the Bharatpur force mutinied too, and the Europeans were obliged to flee. Mr. Thornhill returned to Muttra, and, after a short visit to Agra in search of help which could not be given, remained with the Seths till June 14th, when the Kotah contingent under Captain Dennys arrived, and an expedition towards Aligarh was made: on the 22nd June it went out to Sadabad, and on the 29th was called into Agra. On July 2nd the part of the Gwalior contingent mutinied at Aligarh, and on the 5th we lost the city of Agra for a time; the Nimach mutineers marched towards Muttra, and all the Europeans had to fly, but reached Agra in safety. All the eastern part of Muttra then rose in rebellion till 5th October, when Mr. Thornhill made an expedition from Agra and captured the rebel leader Deokarn. On the 1st November he returned to Muttra, and Colonel Cotton's column then proceeded through the district to Kosi, punishing the insurgent villages. It returned by Muttra to Agra, and after this no serious disturbance of authority took place.

25. *Administration.*—The modern district of Muttra is one of the six which make up the Agra division, and is the most westerly of the six. It is subdivided into six parganahs, co-extensive with the six talhsilis or sub-collectorates. Jalesar, the seventh, was taken from it and transferred to Agra in 1874. The present district dates only from 1832, when it was formed out of the districts of Agra and Sadabad. In Akbar's time it was under three different Sarkars or divisions, *viz.*, Agra, Sabur, and Kol. The parganah of Aring, which is now re-united with that of Muttra, was only formed on the British occupation of the district. The Sadabad parganah was formed in the time of Sháhjahán by his famous minister Súdullah Khán, who gave his name to it.

(a) *Criminal and Revenue.*—The ordinary staff of the district consists of a magistrate and collector, one joint magistrate, one assistant magistrate, and one deputy magistrate and collector (uncovenanted); there are now also one assistant settlement officer and one settlement deputy collector. There are 6 tahsildars or sub-magistrates and sub-collectors and 8 special magistrates with local powers (all at Brindában at present). The deputy collectors, sub-magistrates, and special magistrates are all natives, the rest are Europeans.

The magistrate, joint magistrate, and assistant magistrate have 1st class powers, the deputy magistrate 1st or 2nd class, and the sub-magistrates and special magistrates 2nd or 3rd class. There are also a district superintendent of police and a civil surgeon, who have certain magisterial powers.

(b) *Civil.*—Muttra is under the civil and sessions judge of Agra, and the sub-judge of Agra also has civil jurisdiction over the Muttra district : at Muttra there is only a munsif or civil court of original jurisdiction.

The civil cases are included in the returns of Agra. The number of cases decided by each of the other classes of courts was—

Revenue courts	1,102
Criminal courts	1,712

(c) *Police.*—In the year 1875 the total strength of the district regular police force was 850. This number consisted of one district superintendent, 113 officers under the rank of inspector, 14 mounted and 722 foot constables. The cost of maintaining this force was £9,267. The total strength of the police is one man to every 1·89 square miles, and one man to every 1,043 persons in the total population. The cost of maintenance is equal to £5·7 per square mile, or 2½d. per head of the population.

(d) *Jails.*—There are at Muttra two places of confinement for prisoners : (1) the district jail, and (2) the magistrate's lock-up.

(1) The district jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 183 prisoners, of whom 179 were male and 4 female. It is under the charge of the civil surgeon, who has under him a jailor and 22 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 38-8-0.

The average outturn of labour was Rs. 3.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 438.

The rate of mortality was 0·51 per cent. of average strength.

(2) The lock-up contained in 1875 a daily average of 18 under-trial prisoners, of whom 17 were male and 1 female.

(e) *Post-office and Telegraph.*—There are 13 imperial and 9 district post-offices in Muttra : there were in 1876 42 letters per head of population per annum, and 28·22 letters per educated man per annum.

There is one telegraph station on the East Indian Railway at Jalesar road station in parganah Sádabad, and two on the Muttra Light Railway at Muttra and Ráyá.

26. *Revenue and Finance.*—The district local funds amounted in 1875 to £28,952, and the expenditure to £15,357.

There are three municipalities ; of these the receipts and expenditure were as follows in 1875 :—

Municipality.	Receipts.			Expenditure.			Incidence of taxation per head.
	£	£	£	Rs. a. p.			
Muttra	5,790		5,405	0 11 10			
Kosi	1,380		1,805	0 11 7			
Brindában...	2,432		2,877	0 15 1			

The whole amount of revenue raised in the district, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, in 1876 was £234,178, or on a population of 882,849¹ an incidence per head of 5·3 shillings. Out of this £37,356, or 16 per cent. of the total receipts, was returned to the district in payment for its administration.

Settlement.—The new settlement was begun in 1872, and will probably be concluded in 1878. It has at present resulted in an increase of the revenue from £28,681 to £31,653, or by £2,972, and it has cost £28,464.

27. *Medical statistics.*—There are three dispensaries in the district, at Muttra, Brindában, and Kosi.

During the year 1875, 21,424 persons were treated in these dispensaries, of whom 421 were in-door and 21,003 out-door patients. The total receipts were £644, and the expenditure on establishment £335. The total number of deaths in the year 1875 was 17,490, or 19·71 per 1,000 of the population. The mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 during the previous six years was 17·39.

In 1875, 12,346 persons were vaccinated, and the operation was successful in 11,191 cases.

28. *Education.*—There were 232 schools in the district in 1875 with 7,790 scholars, which gives an average area of 6·94 square miles for each school, and a percentage of ·87 scholars on the total population.

Of these schools 223 were male and 9 female. The total cost was £3,367, of which £1,173 was paid from provincial and £2,194 from local sources. Muttra is in the 2nd or Agra circle of education, and is the first district in which halkabandi or circle schools were opened. There are aided Anglo-vernacular schools in Muttra, Brindában, and Kosi. The language of instruction in the vernacular schools is Hindi. There were 581 scholars in the Government tahsíli schools, of whom 536 were Hindús and 45 Musalmáns. The cost per head was 8s. 6d.

29. *Fairs and Chief Towns.*—The towns with a population above 5,000 are :—

¹ Increased by 1 per cent. from 1872, as in Administration Report.

(1) Muttra, the capital of the district, is on the right bank of the Jumna, about 30 miles above Agra. It is of great antiquity, being mentioned as a Buddhist centre by Fa Hian about 400 A.D., and by Hwen Tsang about 650 A.D. It had then 20 Buddhist monasteries and 5 Brahmanical temples. In 1017 it was sacked by Mahmud of Ghazni in his 9th invasion of India, and from that time it remained in insignificance till Akbar's reign, or 1556. About 1500 the Sultán Sikandar Lodi utterly destroyed all the shrines, temples, and images, and in 1636 the Emperor Shahjahán appointed a governor expressly to stamp out idolatry in Muttra. In 1669-70 Aurangzeb himself visited Muttra and destroyed many temples and shrines, so that it is only from the Ját times that any series of monumental records exists.

In 1803 Muttra passed under British rule and became a frontier military station ; it was retaken by Holkar in September, 1804, for a few days, and was then finally reoccupied by the British. Holkar advanced on Dehli, but was repulsed by Octerlony and defeated between Dig and Gobardhan by General Fraser, who was killed, and was buried at Muttra. In 1832 Muttra was made the capital of the new district formed out of the districts of Sádabad and Agra. Muttra contains a population of 59,281, of whom 49,937 are Hindús and 9,344, or only one-fifth, are Musalmáns. The municipal income is £5,499, and the rate of taxation Rs. 0-14-10. The town occupies 490 square acres, and has 121 persons to the acre.

(2) Brindában has a population of 20,350, of whom 19,514 are Hindús and 836, or only one-twenty-third, are Musalmáns. The municipal income is £2,125, the rate of taxation Re. 1-0-8, the area 275 square acres, and the number of persons per acre 74. Brindában is on the right bank of the Jumna, on a peninsula formed by a bend of the river to the north, and is 6 miles north of Muttra ; it is one of the most holy places of the Hindús.

(3) Chháta is the local headquarters of the Chháta parganah, which were formerly placed at Sahár ; it is 9 miles west of the Jumna and on the northern borders of the parganah ; it has a population of 6,720 and an income of £169 ; the area is 80 square acres, and the rate of taxation Rs. 0-4-0.

(4) Shergarh is in the north-east of Chháta parganah, on the right bank of the Jumna, 8 miles north-east of Chháta. It has a population of 5,305, an income of £123, a rate of taxation of Rs. 0-3-9, and an area of 76 square acres.

(5) Kosi is the headquarters of the Kosi parganah, and is situated in the centre of it, 10 miles west of the Jumna. It has a population of 12,770, an income of £1,347, a rate of taxation of Re. 1-0-11, and an area of 157 square acres.

(6) Jalesar (now in Agra) is situated in the northern centre of the parganah of that name, and is 38 miles east of Muttra and the Jumna. It has a population of 15,694, an income of £1,230, a rate of taxation of Rs. 0-12-7, and an acreage of 299.

(7) Áwá (now in Agra) is situated in the extreme east of parganah Jalesar, and is 12 miles east of Jalesar. It has a population of 5,584, an income of £54, a rate of taxation of Rs. 0-1-7, and an acreage of 134.

(8) Mahában is situated on the left bank of the Jumna, 6 miles below Muttra, and a mile east of Gokul. Krishna is supposed to have been born at Mahában, and reared in his infancy at Gokul. It was sacked by Mahmud of Ghazni in 1017, and never recovered the effects, though it is mentioned in 1234, and again by the Emperor Akbar in 1526. A great part of the town is occupied by a hill extending over 30 acres, where stood the old fort.

(9) Bisáwar is on the road from Kandauli to Muttra, 6 miles north of the Jumna and on the western edge of parganah Sádabad : it has a population of 5,221 and an area of 66 square acres. There was originally here a dense jungle, of which 700 acres still remain ; this was partly cleared about 900 A.D. by Rám Sen Ját, whose descendants still hold four-fifths of the village.

(10) Kursandah, in parganah Sádabad, 4 miles south of Sádabad and 8 miles north of the Jumna. It has a population of 7,145 and an area of 97 acres. It is on the Agra and Aligarh road ; the owners are Játs and Brahmans.

(11) Surir, in parganah Mát Noh-Jhil, 1 mile east of the Jumna, in the centre of the parganah. It is inhabited by Thákurs, Baniahs, and Bairagis. It has a population of 5,279 and an area of 79 square acres.

(30.) *Archæology.*—Muttra itself and the towns of Gobardhan, Gokul, Mahában, and Brindában all abound with objects of antiquarian interest. Muttra has many remains of the Buddhistic period, though most are of much more recent origin. The principal buildings in the city are :—

(1) The Hardinge arch or Agra gate of the city, erected by the municipality at a cost of £900 in 1872.

(2) Temple of Radha Kishn in the Chháta bazar, built in 1870-71 at a cost of £4,000.

(3) Temple of Bije Gobind in the Sabghara Muhalla, built in 1867 at a cost of £6,500.

(4) Temple of Gata-sram near the Visránt Ghát, built in 1800 at a cost of £2,500.

(5) Temple of Dwára Kádhís (the Seth's temple) in the Asikunda bazar, built in 1815 at a cost of £2,000.

(6) The Sati-bhurj or faithful widow's tower, built by Rája Bhagwan Dás in 1570.

(7) The Jama Masjid or mosque of Abd-un-Nabi Khán, built in 1662.

(8) The mosque of Aurangzeb, built in 1669 on the site of the temple of Kesva Deva.

At Brindában there are (1) the Kúshal-bagh, a garden surrounded by a masonry wall and with long aqueducts for the supply of water; (2) a large báoli or well of red sandstone with 57 steps leading down to the water; this was the gift Ahalya Bai, the Mahratta queen of Indore, who died in 1795; (3) the great tanks of the Brahm Kund and the Gobind Kund; (4) the temple of Gobind Deva, erected in 1590 (originally with seven towers, all now destroyed) by Rája Mán Sinh of Ambar, who was governor of Kabul and Behar under Akbar; (5) the temple of Madan Mohan (Krishna), at the upper end of the town, on the river bank near the Kali Mardan Ghát; (6) the temple of Gopinath, built by Raesil Jí about 1580; (7) the temple of Jugal Kishor, at the lower end of the town, near the Kesi ghát, built in 1627; (8) the great temple of the Seths, dedicated to Rang-jí, and built from 1845 to 1851 at a cost of 25 lakhs.

At Mahában are (1) the old fort on the hill, with the shrine of Syam Lala; (2) Nanda's palace, or the Assi-khamba, divided into four aisles by 5 rows of 16 pillars each, probably dating from before 1017.

At Gobardhan are (1) the sacred tank of Manasi Ganga, where the pilgrims bathe at the close of the rains; (2) the temple of Hari Deva, erected during Akbar's reign by Rája Bhagwán Dás of Ambar, who was governor of the Panjab and father of Prince Khusrú; (3) on the opposite side of the Manasi Ganga the two cenotaphs of Randhir Sinh and Baldeva Sinh, Rájás of Bháratpur, who died in 1823 and 1825; (4) the monument of Súraj Mal, erected by Jawahir Sinh, his son, soon after his death in 1764 at Dehli. It has three chhattris or cenotaphs, nine two-storied kiosks, and a large garden with an artificial lake in it.

SHÁHJAHÁNPUR.

SHÁHJAHÁNPUR.

A DISTRICT IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. *Position and area.*—The district of Sháhjahánpur—bounded on the north by the district of Bareilly, on the east by the Oudh districts of Hardoi and Kheri, on the south by Farukhabad, and on the west by Budaun and Bareilly—lies between $27^{\circ} 35' 0''$ and $28^{\circ} 28' 15''$ north latitude, and between $79^{\circ} 23' 0''$ and $80^{\circ} 25' 45''$ east longitude, and contains an area of 1,723 square miles, and a population of 949,579 persons, or 551 to the square mile.

2. *Subdivisions.*—The district is divided into four tahsils or sub-collectorates and 12 parganahs, as follows, from south to north :—

Number.	Tahsil.	Parganah.				Revenue, 1876.
1	Jalalábad	...	1 Jalalábad	21,097
2	Sháhjahánpur	...	1 Sháhjahánpur	12,450
3	Tilhar	...	2 Kant	9,178
			3 Jamaur	7,475
			1 Tilhar	10,928
			2 Jalalpur	6,303
			3 Nigohi	7,15
			4 Khera Bajhera	7,236
			5 Miranpur Katra	849
4	Pawáyan	...	1 Pawáyan	21,651
			2 Baragaon	7,298
			3 Khotar	5,312
District total						117,493

It formerly also contained the parganah of Puranpur, which was annexed to the Pilibhit subdivision of the Bareilly district in 1865, and a detached tract called Pallia across the Sárdha river, which was transferred to the Kheri district of Oudh in 1868.

3. *Physical geography and boundaries.*—The district is the most south-easterly of the Rohilkhand division, and marches with the province of Oudh throughout its eastern border. Its present northern border is an irregular

line of 33 miles, running east and west, and separating it from Puranpur, which once belonged to it. Its western border is an exceedingly irregular line, running in a generally north and south direction, and 108 miles in length. For 18 miles in parganah Khera Bajhera this line is defined by the course of the river Ramganga. The southern border is formed by the river Ganges, which runs in a straight line from west to east for 18 miles, and divides this district from that of Farukhabad. The Ganges and Ramganga approach within four miles at the point where the southern and eastern boundaries meet. The average length of the district is 80 miles, and the average breadth 22 miles. It is a long and narrow tract running from the Ganges towards the Himalayas, and consequently nearly at right angles to the river system, and it is in fact a section of the country between the Ganges and the Sárdhá.

The north-east boundary of the district is within four or five miles of the river Sárdhá, and the more important rivers of the district in order from north-east to south-west are—(1) the Gumti, (2) the Khanaut, (3) the Katna, (4) the Garra, (5) the Baighal, (6) the Ramganga, (7) the Sot, and (8) the Ganges.

The natural character of the country depends chiefly on the river system. (1) To the north-east the parganah of Khotár includes the part of the district beyond the Gumti; this tract is not far distant from the great Tarai, and is but partly reclaimed ; a large area is still under forest or otherwise waste ; population is very thin, and the tract is unhealthy, particularly along the Jhakna : water is close to the surface, and the soil is naturally of fair quality. (2) The next tract is that between the Gumti and the Khanaut, which includes the greater part of the Pawáyan and Baragáo parganahs and part of Sháhjahánpur. In the northern part next the Pilibhit subdivision of Bareilly the soil is light, but varied with clay along the drainage lines, which after converging form the Bhainsi nalla, a tributary of the Gumti. This part, like Khotar, is of a quasi-tarai character, and is also unhealthy. The southern part has a richer soil, generally a productive loam, and is densely inhabited and well cultivated with sugarcane and other productive crops. (3) The Khanaut falls into the Deoha or Garra just below Sháhjahánpur, and the tract between the Khanaut and the Deoha is a triangular piece of land bounded on the north by the Bareilly district. This includes the Nigohi parganah and parts of Jalálpur, Pawáyan, and Sháhjahánpur. The portion near the rivers is fertile, but all along their tributaries, the Katna and Kaimua, is a hard clay soil which is not fertile : this tract is thinly inhabited, and there is great deal of thorn and dhák jungle still in it. (4) The next division is the tract between the Garai and the Garra ; this includes parts of Jalálpur and Tilhar and all Jamor, and is intersected by the

Bhainsi nalla : the part in Jamer is very low, and after heavy rains is often submerged. (5) South of the Garai, and between it and the Rámganga, comes another tract, through the centre of which runs the Baighul : from the bed of the Gorai there is a marked rise in the land up to the sandy ridge which runs above the Rámganga : and the Baighul at first cuts its way through this ridge in a narrow valley, but further south the ridge follows the course of the Baighul, and does not rejoin the Rámganga till it reaches the point of junction of the two rivers. Between the Garai and the Rámganga are the whole of the Kant, Khera Bajhera, and Miranpur Katra parganahs and parts of Tilhar and Jalalabad. (6) The last natural subdivision of the district is the portion between the Rámganga and the Ganges ; this is entirely in the Jalálabad parganah, and all lies low : it is divided into the Tarai and the Bankatti, the former including the valley of the Rámganga, in which the river wanders about in changing courses and destroys and re-forms land with great rapidity : the latter is the part beyond the influence of the Rámganga, and the soil is a hard clay requiring much irrigation, which is afforded by the Sot and other streams, which are dammed so as to obtain a great head of water, which is then sent away in distribution channels to great distances. The good workable alluvial soil runs much further back than any tradition of the existing rivers.

4. *Rivers.*—The large rivers in the district are the—(1) Ganges, (2) Rámganga, (3) Baighul, (4) Garai, (5) Garra, (6) Khanaut, (7) Bhainsi, (8) Gumti, (9) Sot, and (10) Katna.

(1.) The Ganges has only a course of 16 miles in this district : it forms the boundary between Sháhpur and Farukhabad throughout, and flows from west to east. It enters at Gangápur at the south-west corner of Jalálabad, and leaves near Kumraul at the south-east corner of the same parganah.

(2.) The Rámganga first touches the district 4 miles west of Khera in the Khera Bajhera parganah ; it thence for 18 miles forms the boundary between that parganah and parganahs Salempur and Useth of Budaun. It then enters the district at the point of junction of the Khera Bajhera and Jalálabad parganahs near Kundariya, and flows right across parganah Jalálabad from north-west to south-east for 34 miles, passing 4 miles south of the town of Jalálabad, and leaving the district at Manjiar, 8 miles south of Jalálabad. The bed of the Rámganga is sand, and there is generally a low tract of sand on one side, but little raised above the level of low water : this is often cut away by the river, and often forms the foundation for a deposit of alluvial soil.

The traffic on the Rámganga is chiefly in cereals and pulses, and the trade is in great part carried on by Cawnpore traders, whose boats are brought

to Kola Ghát near Jalálabad, and generally there receive the cargo. Agents purchase grain in the country round, and this is collected and loaded at Kola Ghát. The Rámganga is navigable from Kola Ghát all the year, though navigation is difficult in the dry season; but above Kola Ghát navigation is only possible till the middle of the cold season.

(3.) The Baighul enters the district in the centre of the western boundary of parganah Jalálpur, about 6 miles south-west of Khudáganj; it forms the boundary of the district and parganah to the point where Jalálpur and Miranpur Katra meet for 6 miles, and it then enters the district, dividing Miranpur Katra from Khera Bajhera for 8 miles. It next takes a large sweep to the west for 10 miles into parganah Khera Bajhera, returning again to the east, and forming the boundary between Khera Bajhera and Tilhar for 8 miles: thence it flows through the north of parganah Jalálabad till it falls into the Rámganga 6 miles west of Jalálabad.

(4.) The Garai has its source in a lake a mile east of Miranpur Katra, and flows south-east, past Tilhar and through the Tilhar parganah, for 14 miles, till it reaches the borders of parganahs Jamor and Kant; it then divides these two for 21 miles till it leaves the district at the south extremity of Jamor close to the Garra.

(5.) The Garra enters the district at the northern point of parganah Jalálpur; it flows through that parganah, past Khudáganj, for 24 miles, and then crosses parganah Nigohi a little above its southern boundary for 15 miles, till it reaches the borders of Jamor and Sháhjahánpur, when it divides these two parganahs for about 36 miles, passing the city of Sháhjahánpur, and leaving the district on the Oudh border 3 miles south of Sehramau.

(6.) The Khanaut first touches the district at the north-west corner of parganah Pawáyan, and forms the boundary between it and Bisalpur of Bareilly for 21 miles: it then strikes southerly across parganahs Pawáyan, Baragáo, and Sháhjahánpur for 24 miles till it falls into the Garra just below the city of Sháhjahánpur.

(7.) The Bhainsi rises in the north-west of parganah Pawáyan, and flows south-east right through the parganah till it falls into the Gumti near the eastern border 7 miles east of Pawáyan. Its total course is about 20 miles.

(8.) The Gumti enters the district near Gulária on the northern border of Pawáyan, and separates that parganah from Khutár for 23 miles; it then takes a short bend of 5 miles through a corner of Pawáyan, and leaves the district 3 miles south of Piparia.

(9.) The Sot and (10) the Katna.

5. *Lakes*.—There is a large *jhil* or temporary lake of 312 square acres between Pawáyan and Nahil near Amrsanda. It is the real head of the Sukhetá. There is another large one in parganah Baragáon, west of Baragaon, of about 117 acres in extent; and a third, with Tikri in the northern corner of parganah Sháhjahánpur, of 221 acres.

There is also a large lake between the Baighul and the Deoha, 4 miles south of Khudáganj, and 5 miles north of Miranpur Katra, and there are two smaller lakes, one 2 miles north of Miranpur, and the other half a mile east of it. The large lake first mentioned is the source of the Garai.

There is a large lake near Nahal in Pawayan not far from the Amrsanda one, another at Nadotha in Khotar, and others in Jalalábad on the Badaon border.

Almost all these become nearly, if not quite, dry in the hot weather, and there are none of size or depth enough really to deserve the name of lake; but they remain full of water till the end of November or middle of December, and afford water for the irrigation of wheat and other spring crops.

6. *Forests and waste lands*.—There are no great forests in the district, but the forest tract which extends from the Tarái of Nipál through the Kheri and Bareilly districts passes through Khutár, the northern parganah of this district. It lies all along the northern part of the parganah from Durjanpur Kalán to Sehramau, and is about 12 miles long and 3 miles broad. It is owned by private individuals. Another belt of sál forest crosses the parganah.

This Khotár forest consists chiefly of sál trees, but does not now contain any of large size, though they are very valuable for building purposes.

There are two smaller pieces of sál forest in the Pawáyan parganah, one on the river Gumti, the other on the Khanaut; but in the east of the district whatever forest remains is of dhák and thorn bushes, and is almost confined to the hardest and poorest soil in the Nigohi, Jalalábad, and Jamor parganahs, and even this is being brought under the plough. There are no large pasture grounds, and very little pasturage in the district. Cattle are sent in large numbers from the north of the district to graze in Nipál, going early in the cold weather, and returning at the commencement of the rains.

There are no úsar (saltpetre) plains or extensive stretches of waste unculturable ground in the district.

7. *Geology*.—The district is entirely an alluvial plain, sloping, like the other Rohilkhand districts, from north-west to south-east, and having the course of all its rivers more or less in the same line.

The northern part of the district is submontane in character, and water lies very near to the surface; the central portion is level and well drained while

the extreme south again between the Rámganga and the Ganges is marshy and low. Nothing is known of the formations which underlie the alluvial deposits.

8. *Climate.*—The average total rainfall was 37 inches for the ten years from 1864 to 1873; during this period the maximum was 54·5 inches in 1867, and the minimum was 18·3 inches in 1868.

The annual mean temperature is not known, but is probably much the same as that of Bareilly, which is 77·2 for the whole year ; the highest being 81° in June, and the lowest 44·5 in January.

The climate is much more damp than in the Upper Doáb, and also somewhat more moist than in Rohilkhand generally. It is seldom that more than a month or six weeks passes at any time of the year without a fall of rain, and the prevailing wind is easterly. The heat is not so great in the hot months as in other districts, and hot winds seldom blow for more than five or six days each year, and never with the force or heat experienced in the Doáb.

The country throughout the year, except May and June, looks fairly fresh and green, and is not brown and parched like the Doáb. The climate generally is good and healthy, the only exception being the Khutár parganah, which, from its proximity to the Tarái and from the quantity of forest in and about it, is very malarious ; bad fever and ague prevail there in September and October, and again in April and May. The northern part of Pawáyan and the southern part of Jalalábad along the Sot are also unhealthy, but not so much so as Khutár.

9. *Minerals and trees.*—There are no mines in the district or minerals except kankar (nodular limestone), which is found in beds in most parts of the district.

The trees are the ordinary trees of a Rohilkhand district (see Bareilly and Bijnor), and there are no remarkable species or varieties.

The kankar is dug out in a soft state, but hardens rapidly on exposure to air. It is usually found near marshes or ponds, or in drainage lines. It is used for burning into lime and for metalling roads : and is chiefly found in the Sháhjahánpur and Tilhar tal:sils and parganah Baragáon.

10. *Animals and Birds.* (A) *Wild animals and game.*—Leopards are not uncommon in the sál forests in Khutár, and a wandering tiger may be occasionally seen ; the lynx also has been shot, though very rarely. Spotted deer and nilgai (*portax pictus*) are found in the dhák woods, and hog-deer and the four-horned antelope (*chausingha*) are found, though not common. The common antelope (black buck) is found all over the district, but chiefly along the Gumti and in the valley of the Ganges.

Of Birds—the bustard, floriken, and lesser floriken are occasionally found ; the black and grey partridge, quail, sand grouse, and peafowl are to be

found throughout the district. Geese, crane, curlew, snipe, teal and wild fowl of all kinds are abundant in the cold weather.

(B) *Domestic animals.*—The horned cattle of the district are, as a rule, small and weak, and good draught cattle are usually imported from across the Ganges. The best cattle are found in Khutár, where attempts have been made to improve the breed ; this was also done at the Rosa factory, but the natives have shown no inclination to use the facilities offered to them. Camels are but little used, the climate being too damp. Sheep and goats are very small and of the ordinary plains breed. Twenty or thirty years ago a valuable breed of horses was produced in the district, but this has quite died out now, though a few fair horses are still bred in Jalalábad and Tilhar tahsils.

(C) *Fish.*—The chief fish are the (1) rahn, (2) banson, (3) sauchi, (4) sowar, (5) dingar, (6) kaunchi, (7) musaunri, (8) katinna, (9) bam (eel), (10) garai, (11) singhi, and (12) gonch (fresh-water shark).

11. *Population.*—In the census of 1872 there were 1,723 square miles in the Sháhjahánpur district with 2,180 mauzas, 188,958 houses, and a population of 949,579. There were 551 persons and 1·3 villages to the square mile, 436 persons per village, and 5·0 persons per house. There were 5,589 masonry houses and 183,369 mud ones. Of the sexes there were 511,136 males and 438,235 females.

The numbers of each religion and sex were as follows:—

Hindús	... {	Males	446,162
		Females	376,414
				Total	822,576
Musalmáns	... {	Males	64,746
		Females	61,813
				Total	126,559
Christians	... {	Males	228
		Females	68
				Total	296

The percentages of each sex and religion on the total population were as follows:—

Hindús	86·6		Males	54·1
Musalmáns	13·4		Females	45·9

There were 3·5 persons per cent. above 60 years of age, and 18,561 males able to read and write. The total agricultural population was 634,112. The area of assessed land was 1,697 square miles, of which 253 were uncultivable, 322 cultivable, and 1,122 cultivated, and there were besides 6 square miles

of uncultivable unassessed land. The amount of land revenue was £108,175, and the rates and cesses on land £8,559, and the incidence of the land revenue per culturable acre was Re. 1-2-8. The percentage of agricultural on total population was 66·7.

The numbers of the chief Hindú castes and Musalmán tribes were as follows :—

Hindús	Brahmans	62,130
	Rájputs	69,222
	Banials	14,600
	Ahirs	65,232
	Chamárs	109,448
	Kayaths	12,323
	Kurmis	28,248
	Shekhs	18,773
Musalmans	Saiads	8,325
	Mughals	1,167
	Patháns	41,564

The numbers of males above fifteen years in each of the six great classes of occupations were—

Professional	2,425
Domestic	17,339
Commercial	10,792
Agricultural	214,528
Industrial	35,978
Indefinite	29,358
				Total	...	<u>320,420</u>

There were altogether 2,180 inhabited villages and towns, of which 834 contained less than 200 inhabitants ; 818 less than 500 ; 385 less than 1,000 ; 118 less than 2,000 ; 12 less than 3,000 ; 6 less than 5,000 ; 6 less than 10,000 ; *nil* less than 20,000 ; and 1 above 20,000.

The following figures show the comparative results of the censuses of 1853, 1865, and 1872 :—

Area.—This was 2,308 square miles in 1853, 2,328 in 1865, and 1,723 in 1872 : it therefore increased by 20 square miles, or 8 per cent., in the first twelve years, and decreased by 605 square miles, or 35·1 per cent., in the latter seven years. The total decrease was therefore 585 miles in the whole nineteen years, or 34 per cent. on the present area.

Population.—The total population was 986,096 in 1853, 1,018,117 in 1865, and 949,579 in 1872 : it therefore increased by 32,021, or 3·2 per cent., from 1853 to 1865 ; it decreased by 68,537, or 7·2 per cent., from 1865 to 1872, and decreased by 36,517, or 3·8 per cent., in the whole nineteen years.

from 1853 to 1872. We therefore find that it increased in the former period at the rate of .27 per cent. per annum, while it decreased in the latter at the rate of 1.03 per cent. per annum, and during the whole period of nineteen years at the rate of .2 per cent. per annum.

Sex.—There were of males in 1853, 529,749; in 1865, 548,615; in 1872, 511,136: they therefore increased in the first period by 18,866, or 3.5 per cent., and in the second decreased by 37,479, or 7.3 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years decreased by 18,613, or 3.6 per cent. There were of females in 1853, 456,347; in 1865, 469,502; in 1872, 438,335: they therefore increased in the first period by 13,155, or 2.9 per cent., and decreased in the second by 31,167, or 7.1 per cent., while on the whole nineteen years the decrease was 18,012, or 4.1 per cent.

The proportion of males to females was—

1.86 to 1 in 1853

1.16 „ 1 „ 1865

1.16 „ 1 „ 1872

The proportion of males therefore diminished considerably from 1853 to 1865, and then remained stationary.

The males increased by 3.5 per cent., and decreased by 7.3, or decreased by 3.6 on the whole. The females increased by 2.9 per cent., and decreased by 7.1, or decreased by 4.1 on the whole. So that in the first period the males increased half as fast again as the females, while in the second period they decreased equally, and on the whole nineteen years the females decreased by a half per cent. faster than the males.

The annual rates of increase were—

	<i>Decrease per cent.</i>		<i>Increase per cent.</i>	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
	—	—	—	—
In the first period
In the second period	...	1.04	1.01	...
In the whole period19	.21	..

12. *Religion.*—There were 858,532 Hindús in 1853, 885,853 in 1865, and 822,576 in 1872: they therefore increased in the first period by 27,321, or 3.1 per cent., and in the second decreased by 63,277, or 7.6 per cent., and in the whole nineteen years decreased by 35,956, or 4.3 per cent.

There were 127,564 Musalmáns in 1853, 130,991 in 1865, and 126,599 in 1872 : they therefore increased in the first period by 3,427, or 2·6 per cent., and decreased in the second by 4,392, or 3·4 per cent., and decreased in the whole nineteen years by 965, or 0·7 per cent.

The proportion of Hindús to Musalmáns was—

6·73 to 1 in 1853

6·76 „ 1 „ 1865

6·49 „ 1 „ 1872

The proportion of Hindús therefore very slightly increased between 1853 and 1865, and then diminished till 1872.

The Hindús increased by 3·1 in the first period, and diminished by 0·76 per cent. in the second, so that on the whole they decreased by 4·3 per cent.

The Musalmáns increased by 2·6 per cent. in the first period, and decreased by 3·4 per cent. in the second, and 0·7 per cent. on the whole; so that in the first period the Hindús increased slightly faster than the Musalmáns, while in the second they decreased twice as fast as the latter, and on the whole period the Hindús decreased four times as fast as the Musalmáns.

13. *Land Revenue.*—In 1853 the land revenue was Rs. 10,60,318, in 1865 it had decreased to Rs. 10,48,522, and by 1872 increased to Rs. 10,81,750 : it therefore decreased by Rs. 11,796, or 1·12 per cent., during the first period, and increased by Rs. 33,228, or 3·1 per cent., during the second, while the total increase on the whole nineteen years was Rs. 21,432, or 2·02 per cent. The decrease was therefore 0·09 per cent. per annum from 1853 to 1865, and the increase was 0·44 per cent. per annum from 1865 to 1872, while the increase over the whole period was at the rate of 0·106 per cent. per annum.

Number of mauzas.—This was 2,785 in 1853, 2,794 in 1865, and 2,180 in 1872 : the mauzas therefore increased by 9, or 3 per cent., from 1853 to 1865, and diminished by 614, or 28·1 per cent., from 1865 to 1872 ; the total diminution in number on the whole nineteen years being 605, or 27·7 per cent., or 1·4 per cent. per annum. This very great diminution in the number of the mauzas is due to the transfer of a large number to the Tarai on the establishment of that district.

Persons per square mile.—In 1853 there were 427 persons per square mile ; in 1865, 437 ; and in 1872, 551 : the density of population therefore increased by 10 in the first period of twelve years, or by 2·3 per cent., or 1·19 per cent. per annum ; it increased by 114 during the second period of seven years, or by 26·0 per cent., or 3·71 per cent. per annum, and by 124, or

29·0 per cent., or 1·5 per cent. per annum in the whole period of nineteen years. This is an enormous rate of increase, more than double that of Búlandshahr or Bareilly, the highest rates which occur in the Meerut or Rohilkhand divisions.

14. *Town and village population.*—There are seven towns in the district with a population of over 5,000 each, viz., Sháhjahánpur, Pawáyan, Tilhar, Hindupatti, Jalalábad, Míranpur Katra, and Kant. These have a total population of 108,239, and as the whole population of the district is 949,579, one-ninth of it may be said to live in large towns.

Of the 2,180 inhabited places in the district 834 have less than 200 inhabitants, and are therefore mere hamlets ; 1,652 have less than 500 inhabitants, and are therefore small villages, while 2,037 have less than 1,000 inhabitants, and are therefore only villages : so that $\frac{2}{3}$ of all the inhabited places can only be said to rank as villages, and the remaining $\frac{1}{3}$ as towns.

The town and village population of the central portion of the district is fairly prosperous and advanced, and resembles that of other Rohilkhand districts in every respect, but that of Khutár and the northern portion of Pawáyan is backward and poor ; means of communication are few, trade is scanty and uncertain, and the usual sources of wealth and prosperity are undeveloped.

15. *Value of house and furniture.*—The cost of building a house of the best class may be considered to be from £200 upwards ; of the 2nd class from £15 to £150 ; and of the third class from £1 to £10. A trader's house of the better class contains generally about £50 worth of furniture and utensils of all kinds. Bedsteads, mattresses, quilts, carpets, and boxes would represent about £30 worth of this, and cooking vessels the remainder.

A well-to-do cultivator owns a few strong boxes and bedsteads and quilts worth about £10, besides cooking vessels worth £5 or £6.

An artizan in middling circumstances possesses one or two mattresses, bedsteads and quilts, and some drinking vessels, worth altogether about £3.

A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars, one or two quilts, and perhaps a cot, worth in all 10 shillings to a pound.

There is no difference between this and any other of the Rohilkhand districts in respect to the value of houses and furniture : they are built in the same way, and have the same value as those of nearly all the districts in the North-Western Provinces, and the descriptions given under Agra and Bareilly apply equally to this district.

16. *Trades-unions.*—As in other districts, there are no organized trades-unions in the English sense of the word, but the powerful caste pancháyats

answer very much the same purpose, though they have a much wider field of action than an English trades-union has. Goldsmiths, grain dealers, cloth merchants, and other traders have guilds which regulate their trade customs.

Pancháyats are not particularly frequent or powerful in this district, but all caste and private family disputes are, as a rule, settled by them ; and though they are in no sense trade-unions, yet the fact of the members of a caste pancháyat being all of one caste, and often all of one occupation, obviously causes them to perform many of the functions of a trades-union.

17. *Village communities.*—The villages in this district, as in nearly all in the north-west, may be classified into three kinds, according to the modes in which the land is held and the Government revenue paid :—

Zamindari.—Where the whole of the land belongs to several owners in joint occupation, one (or more) of the owners is usually selected by the rest to manage the estate, and to collect the Government revenue and pay it in to Government ; in these villages there are no pattis or separate shares of land marked off from the rest, but each proprietor owns a defined proportion of the total produce of the estate.

Imperfect pattidári.—Where the village is partly held by several owners in joint occupation, and partly by several owners in severalty or separate occupation. Here the tenure is partly of the first class and partly of the third class, and each portion is managed as if it were a separate estate belonging to that class.

Pattidári.—Where the land has been completely divided among the sharers, and is held by several owners in severalty, but under one tenure as regards the Government. Here the lands and homesteads are entirely divided off to each owner, but the whole estate remains liable for the Government revenue or any part of it.

There is also a fourth kind of mahál or estate called bhaiáchara, where, though it belongs to the second or third class, the rights and interest of each co-sharer are not determined by his ancestral share, but by custom or possession. In all these classes of estates the settlement of the revenue to be paid to Government is a joint settlement, i.e., all the co-sharers are responsible for the fulfilment of the contract, and all the co-sharers jointly and severally and the entire mahál are responsible for the whole revenue. The zamindari tenure preponderates very largely in all parganas except Kant and Jalálabad, and in the whole district the percentage of zamindari estates is 70 against 30 of pattidári estates. In Kant and Jalálabad, however, the percentage of pattidári estates is 48 and 58½.

There is nothing peculiar in the land tenures or the constitution or position of village communities in this district. The details given under Allahabad, Bareilly, and Agra apply almost equally here, but the country is too recently settled and inhabited to have as complicated holdings and minute divisions as in the Lower Doáb.

The following statement shows the percentages of separate estates held by the principal landholding castes, the remaining 13 per cent. are held by these same castes and a few others in various proportions together, and not as separate estates :—

Rájput	38
Pathán	18
Brahman	8½
Kayath	5½
Baníahs and Mahájans	4
Kurmi	3
					<u>77½</u>

18. *Condition of the people.*—Among the Hindús of the district the cost of living for a family of four persons (man, woman, and two children) would be approximately—(1) for those in the first class, or having incomes over £100 a year, £96 to £180; (2) for those in the second class, or having incomes between £20 and £100 a year, about £24 to £60; and (3) for those in the third class, or with incomes under £20 a year, from £6 to £12. For the Musalmáns it would be rather more, as their habits are somewhat more expensive.

The people in the central portion of the district are fairly well off and resemble entirely those of Bareilly, Budaun, and other neighbouring districts; those in the extreme south, in the swampy and clay tract between the Rámganga and the Ganges, are worse off; irrigation is necessary, and cultivation more difficult and less remunerative, and the condition of the agricultural classes is less prosperous, while in the far north, in Khutár and northern Pawáyan, they are still worse off: agriculture is backward, waste and forest tracts numerous, and the people poor and miserable like their neighbours in the Tarái.

19. *Character of the soil.*—In the north, in Khutár, the soil is fair, except near the Gumti, where a high ridge of light soil extends along the river. In the Pawáyan parganah the soil is light in the northern part, but varied by clay along the drainage lines. In the south of Pawáyan and in Baragaon the soil is a highly cultivated and very productive loam. In the tract between the Garra and the Khanaut (Nigohi, &c.) the soil is excellent, but along the courses of the streams there is a belt of hard clay. Along the valley of the Garra the

upper part in Jalálpur is of good quality, and in Tilhar it is the same and of greater extent; but in Jamor parganah it degenerates into a hard rice clay. The soil here is very low and soon cakes and hardens. In the Kant parganah the soil is light and contains a large proportion of sand, while along the Rám-ganga, in Khera Bajhera and Jalálabad, it is a rich alluvial deposit. South of the Rámganga and approaching the Ganges in Jalálabad the soil is a hard clay requiring copious irrigation for the spring crops. There are two broad lines of alluvial soil crossing the district along the courses of the Rámganga and the Garra.

20. *Course of tillage*.—There are two harvests, the kharif or autumn one, and the rabbi or spring one. The kharif crops are sown in June, directly the first rain falls, and are harvested in October and November, and some of the rice in September, or even as early as the end of August; but cotton is not ripe for picking till February. Besides cotton and rice they include bajra, jowar, mot, &c. The rabbi crops are sown in October and November, and reaped in March and April; they consist of corn, barley, oats, vetch and peas, and dál or arhar. Manure is used, where it can be obtained, for both crops, and land is allowed to lie fallow sometimes, but the cultivator can very rarely afford it; as a rule, spring and autumn crops are not taken off the same land, but sometimes a crop of rice is taken in the autumn, and another crop of some kind in the spring.

This district is of course in agricultural operations like its neighbours, and the accounts given under Bareilly and Budaun apply equally here. The chief products of the district are wheat and gram in the spring harvest; sugar-cane, rice, the millets, and pulses in the autumn harvest. Double crops are sometimes taken of rice, followed by gram or wheat, or a mixture of wheat and barley, and gram and peas. Indian-corn (makka) is the quickest growing and earliest ripening autumn crop; it grows in any average soil, and is the best crop for double crop land.

21. *Years of scarcity*.—The great famine of 1783-84, though felt here, was not so severe as it was in Agra and the south-west. In 1803-4, two years after the cession, there was a complete failure of rain for the autumn crops, not a drop falling after the middle of August.

In 1825-26 there was drought in Rohilkhand, but no real famine.

In 1837-38 there was but little rain in the autumn, but some that fell in February saved Sháhjahánpur from a famine, though there was great scarcity of grain.

The famine of 1860-61 was severely felt in Rohilkhand, and Sháhjahánpur suffered, though not as much as other districts like Budaun.

In 1868-69 the scarcity which prevailed in the rest of Rohilkhand affected this district, though not very severely.

22. *Communications and trade.*—(I) *Railways.*—The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway enters the district near Kahilia station in the 294th mile from Benares, and leaves it near Fatehganj in the 322nd mile. The stations are—

	Miles from Benares.						
1. Kahilia	296
2. Rosa junction...	302
3. Sháhjahánpur...	308
4. Tilhar	317
5. Miranpur Katra	324

At first the line is slightly embanked; then, from Kahilia to Rosa, it goes on the level of the soil, and crosses no rivers; at Rosa it turns to the west and goes through a cutting till it comes to the river Khanaut, which is bridged by an iron girder bridge with openings of $10\frac{1}{2}$ feet in the 305th mile. The line then runs through a cutting to Sháhjahánpur, whence to within half a mile of the Garra river it runs on a high embankment, and after that to Tilhar on the level. The Garra river is crossed in the 309th mile by an iron girder bridge. From Tilhar to Miranpur Katra the line is on the level, and three miles beyond Miranpur Katra it crosses the Baighul by an iron girder bridge.

(II.) *Metalled roads.*—The three great arteries of traffic in the district are—(1) the road from Pawáyan through Sháhjahánpur to Jalalábad, where it joins the Rohilkhand Trunk Road from Bareli to Fatehgarh. This is 40 miles long, and runs due north and south. (2) The imperial road from Lucknow to Bareilly, which, coming from Sítápur, enters the district near Guri, 11 miles east of Sháhjahánpur, and passing that city and Tilhar joins the Rohilkhand Trunk Road at Miranpur Katra: 30 miles of this road are within the district. (3) The Rohilkhand Trunk Road, which enters the district from Fatehgarh, in the south-east of Jalalábad parganah, and runs through Jalalábad to Miranpur Katra, and thence to the borders of the Bareilly district, 4 miles further on. It is 33 miles long in this district.

(III.) *Unmetalled roads.*—The chief unmetalled roads are—(1) from Pawáyan to Khutár and Sehramau, 28 miles due north; (2) from Pawáyan to Bánáda and Gulariya, 22 miles north-west; (3) the road through Pawáyan, due east and west 16 miles; (4) the road from Pawáyan through Nigohi to Khudáganj, 26 miles south-west; (5) from Sháhpur throughout Nigohi to Pilibhit, 26 miles north-west in this district; (6) from Miranpur Katra through Khudáganj to Pilibhit, 13 miles in this district; (7) from Tilhar throughout Khera Bajhera to Budaun, 16 miles south-west in this district; (8) from Sháhpur through Sehramau to Shahábad, 11 miles south-east in this district,

along the left bank of the Garra; (9) from Jalalábad to Dhaighát on the Ganges, crossing the Rámganga at Kolaghát 12 miles in the district. 10. The road from Jalalábad to Badaon, passing through Khandar and Kundaria 15 miles in the district.

Trade.—No accurate returns exist with regard to the trade on the Ganges, Rámganga, or Garra. The traffic on the Rámganga is chiefly in cereals and pulses, and the trade is in great part carried on by Cawnpore traders, whose boats are brought to Kolaghát, near Jalalábad, and generally there receive their cargo: some is brought down the Rámganga and its tributary the Baighul in small boats, but the greater part comes by land.

The exports on the Garra from Sháhjahánpur consist chiefly of cereals and pulses, with the addition of some of the very coarsest and least valuable of the products of the native sugar manufacturer. A large portion of the rum and sugar manufactured by English processes at the Rosa factory used to be sent by water, but it is now all sent by rail. The district trade on the Garra is almost confined to that from the city of Sháhjahánpur.

There is some through traffic from Pilibhit: boats are there built and sent down country laden with produce, and boats and produce are commonly sold. A considerable quantity of timber is also floated down the Garra from Pilibhit. Sugar, the chief export of the district, was formerly taken in country carts by Fatehgarh to Agra and other trans-Jumna marts, and in return salt and cotton were imported by the return carts; but most of this traffic is now borne by the railway, which also convoys the cotton from Chandausi, the chief cotton mart in Rohilkhand. Grain often finds its way by water to Cawnpore, but the return trade in European goods and metals is almost monopolized by the railway.

The principal manufacture under European superintendence is that of sugar, which was started 30 years ago at the Rosa factory of Messrs. Carew and Co. near Sháhjahánpur: it was destroyed in the mutiny, but has been continued ever since. Its outturn is about £60,000 per annum: it employs four Europeans, 1,000 labourers, and 5,000 carts. Besides sugar, rum is also manufactured here and sold to the commissariat, and this is even more important than the sugar manufactory.

23. *Money-lending, wages, and prices.*—The rates of interest at present (1877) charged in the district are as follows:—

(a.)—In small transactions, when articles are pawned, from 12 to 15 per cent.

(b.)—In small transactions, when personal security is given, from 18 to 37 per cent.

(c.)—In large transactions, when jewels, &c., are pledged, from 6 to 12 per cent.

(d.)—When bankers lend money to bankers on personal security, 6 to 9 per cent.

(e.)—When land is mortgaged, from 9 to 18 per cent.

The rates of wages are as follows:—

(a.)—Coolies and unskilled labourers, $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ pence a day.

(b.)—Agricultural labourers, $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 pence a day.

(c.)—Bricklayers and carpenters, 6 pence to 2 shillings a day.

Female labourers are paid about one-fifth less than men.

Boys of from 12 to 16 get two-thirds of the wages of full-grown men; boys younger than that and girls from one-half to one-third.

The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1876 were as follows:—

Number of seers (2lbs.) for a rupee (2s.)

		1st April.	1st August.	1st December.	Average.
Wheat	...	31	29	25	28
Rice	...	8	8	8	8
Juar	...	45	...	36	...
Bíjra	...	45	...	33	40
Dál	...	26	25	23	24

The following table shows the prices of several articles in 1861, 1865, and 1870:—

Articles.	<i>Number of seers (2lbs.) for a rupee (2s.)</i>		
	1861.	1865.	1870.
Paddy	30	31	32
Wheat	20	20	19
Barley	30	30	34
Juar	27	32	29
Salt	9	8	8
Milk	18	16	16
Firewood	185	141	152
Potatoes	26	35	33

Wages were as follows in 1852 and 1872 per diem:—

	1852.	1872.
	d.	d.
Smith	4½	6
Bricklayer	4½	6
Carpenter	4½	6
Labourer	2½	3

The price of wheat increased by 23 per cent. from its average price in 1837—47 to its average price in 1857—67: it increased by 73 per cent. between 1847—57 and 1857—67, and by 95 per cent. from the average price of 1847—57 to that of 1862—67. Prices during 1847—57 were abnormally low.

24. *History.*—The Sháhjahánpur district has no history separate from that of the rest of Rohilkhand until the annexation by the British in 1801. It always formed part of Kather proper in the Musalmán times, nearly the whole of it being east of the Rámganga, and it then formed part of the province under the government of Budaun. About 1720 Ali Muhammad Khán, who had risen into power, at the head of his Rohilla Patháns defeated the governors of Bareilly and Moradabad, and was himself appointed governor of those districts and Sháhjahánpur. On his death in 1751 Hafiz Rahmat Khan, the guardian of his sons, rose to power, and soon defeated the imperial troops sent against him. Sháhjahánpur remained under the Rohilla chiefs, and was governed from Bareilly from about 1720 till 1774, when Rohilkhand was conquered by the Nawáb of Oudh. The Rohillas never had very complete rule in the Gola or Kant parganahs; they had in the west part of the district. The Thakurs, Gaurs or Katheriyas, ruled in the north, *viz.*, Khotar and Pawáyan. Sháhjahánpur being on the border between Oudh and Rohilkhand was a kind of debatable land, but the sympathies and connections of the Sháhjahánpur Pathans were with Oudh and not with the Rohillas. Rohilkhand remained under the Oudh government from 1774 till 1801, when it was ceded to the English by the treaty of Lál Dháng in Bijnor, made on the 25th October of that year. From that time till the outbreak of the mutiny in 1857 our rule was not in any way disturbed, although the district bordered on the most turbulent part of the province of Oudh.

In 1857 Sháhjahánpur was the scene of one of the worst massacres which occurred in Northern India. The news of the Meerut outbreak was received on the 15th May, but all remained quiet till the 25th, the first day of the Id, when the sipáhis of the 28th Native Infantry told their officers that the mob intended to plunder the treasury. The guards were then doubled, but this rendered the sipáhis discontented with the extra duty.

On the 31st March Mr. Ricketts and the other civilians and most of the officers of the 28th were at church, when some of the sipáhis entered the church and attacked them. Mr. Ricketts, Captain James, and Dr. Bowling were shot down at once; the remainder closed the doors and, aided by their servants and 100 faithful sipáhis, held the church against the mutineers. The officers of the 28th who had not been at church joined them and they escaped to Pawáyan, and

afterwards to Mohamdi. The mutineers burnt the station, plundered the treasury, and then marched to Bareilly, and a rebel government under Kádir Ali Khán was proclaimed on the 1st June. On the 18th June Ghulám Kádir Khán, the Nawáb of Sháhjahánpur, passed through the station on his way to Bareilly, where he was appointed Nazim of Sháhjahánpur by Khán Bahádúr Khán : he returned to Sháhjahánpur on the 23rd, and superseded Kádir Ali. He remained in power from June, 1857, till January, 1858, when our troops took Fatehgarh ; the Nawáb of Fatehgarh and Firoz Shah then fled to Sháhjahánpur, and on to Bareilly. When Lucknow was taken the Náná Sahib also fled to Sháhjahánpur, remained there ten days, and then went on to Bareilly. In January the Nawáb murdered Hámíd Hassan Khán, the deputy collector, and his brother Muhammad Hassan, the subordinate judge, for corresponding with the English.

On the 30th April, 1858, the British force under Lord Clyde reached Sháhjahánpur ; the rebels fled to Mohamdi, and the force went on to Bareilly on the 2nd May, leaving only a wing of the 82nd and some artillery. The rebels then assembled again and besieged our troops for nine days till they were relieved by Brigadier Jones's column on the 12th ; the town was then sacked and our authority finally re-established.

The city of Sháhjahánpur itself was only founded 250 years ago in the reign of the Emperor Shahjahán by Nawáb Bahádúr Khán, a Pathán. It is situated on the high ground between the Garra and Khanaut rivers, a short distance above their confluence.¹

25. *Administration.*—Sháhjahánpur is in the commissionership of Bareilly, and is the most south-easterly of the districts in that division. It is the seat of a civil and sessions judge, who has civil jurisdiction over the four eastern parganas of Budaun, riz., Salempur, Useth, Budaun, and Ujháni, and who holds criminal sessions at Budaun alternately with the judge of Bareilly.

(a) *Criminal and Revenue.*—The ordinary staff of the district consists of a magistrate and collector, a joint magistrate, assistant magistrate, and a deputy magistrate and collector (uncovenanted). There are four sub-magistrates and collectors or tahsildars and seven special magistrates with local powers. The deputy collector, the four sub-magistrates, and the seven special magistrates are all natives, the rest are Europeans. Besides these there are an assistant sub-deputy opium agent, a district superintendent of police, and a civil surgeon, who all have magisterial powers to a certain extent.

¹ R. Currie, Settlement Report, p. 12.

The magistrate and joint magistrate have 1st class powers ; the assistant and the deputy magistrate either 1st or 2nd class ; and the sub-magistrates and special magistrates 2nd or 3rd class powers.

(b) The civil and sessions judge has under him a sub-judge and five munsifs or native primary civil courts, three in Sháhjahánpur, at Tilhar, Sháhjahánpur, and Pawáyan, and two in Budaun, at east and west Budaun.

In 1875 the total cost to the State of these civil courts was £7,624, and the amount realized by stamps and court fees £8,387. The number of cases decided by each class of courts was—

Civil courts	6,506
Criminal courts	2,786
Revenue courts	3,465

The average value of property under litigation was £17·8.

The Pawáyan munsif has jurisdiction over the Pawáyan tahsil and parganah Nigohi of the Tilhar tahsil ; the Sháhjahánpur munsif over the city and tahsil of Sháhjahánpur ; and the Tilhar munsif over all the Tilhar tahsil, except Nigohi, and over the tahsil of Jalalábad.

(c) *Police*.—In the year 1875 the total strength of the district regular police force was 672. This number consisted of one district superintendent, 104 officers under the rank of inspector, 12 mounted and 555 foot constables. The cost of maintaining this force was £7,991. The total strength of the police is one man to every 3·16 square miles, and one man to every 1,412 persons in the total population. The cost of maintenance is equal to £3·4 per square mile, or 2d. per head of the population.

(d) *Jails*.—There are at Sháhjahánpur two places of confinement for prisoners—(1) the district jail, (2) the magistrate's lock-up.

(1) The district jail contained in 1875 a daily average of 332·27 prisoners, of whom 320·27 were male and 12·00 female. It is under the charge of the civil surgeon, who has under him a jailor and 24 subordinate officials.

The average cost per head was in 1875 Rs. 33-11-10.

The average outturn of labour was Rs. 4-0-0.

The net profit on the year's labour was Rs. 692-5-7.

The rate of mortality was 2·12 per cent of average strength.

(2) The lock-up contained in 1875 a daily average of 44·25 under-trial prisoners.

(e) *Postal and Telegraph*.—There are 9 imperial and 10 local post-offices in the district; and in 1876 there were ·32 letters per head of population per annum, and 16·70 per educated man.

There are five telegraph offices at the five stations of Kahilia, Rosa, Sháhjahánpur, Tilhar, and Miranpur Katra on the Oudh and Rohilkhand line.

26. *Revenue and Finance.*—The district local funds amounted in 1875 to £22,362, and the expenditure to £19,384.

There are two municipalities in the district ; of these the receipts and expenditure were as follows in 1875:—

Municipality.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Incidence of tax- ation per head.
			Rs. s. p.
Sháhjahánpur 7,118	5,365	0 11 6
Tilhar 1,389	1,024	0 8 3

The whole amount of revenue raised in the district, including imperial, municipal, and local funds, in 1876 was £191,508, or on a population of 987,450 an incidence per head of 3·87 shillings. Out of this £35,302, or 18·43 per cent. of the total receipts, was returned to the district in payment for its administration.

The present settlement of the land revenue was commenced in 1867 and finished in 1875 : it resulted in an increase in the revenue from £98,356 to £118,442, or by £20,915. It has cost £58,650.

The cultivated area is now 66·8 per cent. of the total area, and there is still 17·1 per cent. of cultivable not yet cultivated. The area of cultivation has increased 31 per cent. since the last settlement in 1837.

27. *Medical statistics.*—There are five dispensaries in the district, at Sháhjahánpur, Katra, Gularia, Jalalábad, and Tilhar.

During the year 1875, 19,002 persons were treated in these dispensaries, of whom 936 were in-door and 18,066 out-door patients. The total receipts were £606, and the expenditure on establishment £362.

The total number of deaths in the year 1875 was 23,844, or 25·11 per 1,000 of the population. The mean ratio of deaths per 1,000 during the previous six years was 27·67.

In 1875, 15,168 persons were vaccinated, and the operation was successful in 13,090 cases.

28. *Education.*—There were 202 schools in the district in 1875 with 6,218 scholars, which gives an average area of 8·52 square miles for each school and a percentage of ·65 scholars on the total population.

Of these schools 189 were male and 13 female. The total expenditure on them was £4,136, of which £1,631 was met from provincial and £2,504 from local sources.

There are five Government tahsíli schools with 5,184 scholars, of whom 3,603 were Hindús and 1,579 Mussalmáns: the average cost of each scholar was 12s. 2d.

29. *Fairs and Chief Towns.*—There are seven towns in the district with a population of over 5,000, viz.:—

(1) Sháhjáhpur, on the left or north bank of the river Deoha or Garra. Population, 72,140; Hindús 34,511, Musalmáns 37,538; area 1,635 square acres; municipal income £5,244; taxation Rs. 0-11-8 per head.

(2) Pawáyan, 4 miles south of the Bhainsi river, in south part of parganah Pawáyan, 17 miles north of Sháhjáhpur. Population 6,109; Hindús 4,592, Musalmáns 1,514; area 119 square acres; income £211; taxation Rs. 0-5-6.

(3) Tilhar, in parganah Tilhar, between the Garai and Bhakri rivers, 14 miles west of Sháhjáhanpur. Population 5,317; Hindus 2,730, Musalmáns 2,582; area 83 square acres; income £896; taxation Rs. 0-12-8 per head.

(4) Hindupatti, close to Tilhar. Population 6,009; Hindus 3,409, Musalmáns 2,600; area 207 square acres; income and taxation per head (included under Tilhar).

(5) Jalalábad, in parganah Jalálabad, 19 miles south of Sháhjáhpur, and 4 miles north of the Rámganga. Population 7,129; Hindús 3,687, Musalmáns 3,440; area 118 square acres; income £228; taxation Rs. 0-5-1 per head.

(6) Miranpur Katra, in the parganah of the same name, 20 miles west of Sháhjáhpur, and 3 miles east of the Baighul. Population 6,529; Hindús 4,009, Musalmáns 2,520; area 101 square acres; income £100; taxation Rs. 0-2-5 per head.

(7) Kant, in parganah Kant, on the road from Sháhjáhpur to Jalalábad, 9 miles south of Sháhpur. Population 5,006; Hindús 2,935, Musalmáns 2,071; area 131 square acres; income and taxation not known.

Fairs.—The chief fairs in the district are:—

Name.			Time of year.	Number of persons.
(1) Charain 5,000
(2) Gangaur 3,000
(3) Sehramau	July	... 20,000
(4) Pirthipur Dhai on Ganges	November	... 200,000
(5) Chinaur	December	... 4,000

30. *Archaeology.*—There are no archaeological remains of any importance in the district, all the old places having fallen into utter ruin, and the places which are now of importance being all less than 200 years old.

In Sháhjahánpur itself there is the old fort, which is situated at the extremity of the high ground between the rivers Garra and Khanaut, and there is the large masonry bridge across the latter river, which was built by Hakím Mehndi Ali. In parganah Khotar there are the ruins of the ancient city and tank at Máti, which are proved to be very ancient by the coins and the form of the bricks.

In parganah Pawáyan, on the Khanaut, 10 miles from Sháhjahánpur, is a great khera or fort near the present village of Gola Raipur.

11-6-'77.

A. COTTERELL TUPP.

A G R A C I T Y.

A G R A.

A CITY IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. *Position, area, &c.*—Agra is situated in $27^{\circ} 10' 6''$ north latitude and $78^{\circ} 5' 4''$ east longitude; it covers with its suburbs an area of 19,656 square acres, and contains 34,050 houses, a population of 149,908 souls, and it has a municipal revenue of £14,306; it is the first city of the Agra division, and the second of the North-Western Provinces. It is situated on the right bank of the river Jumna, about 300 miles above its confluence with the Ganges. It is 841 miles from Calcutta, 277 miles from Allahabad, and 139 miles from Delhi (by rail).

2. *Approaches.*—Agra is situated on a navigable river (the Jumna), and is the terminus of three separate lines of railway and of a large number of roads, so that it may be approached in any direction. The Agra branch of the East Indian Railway enters the city from the east, crossing the Jumna by a bridge. The Rájputána Railway from Bháratpur affords access to it from the west, and the Scindia State Railway from the south (Dholpur and Gwalior).

The old imperial road from Delhi through Muttra comes into Agra from the north-west, and the Bháratpur and Fatehpur Sikri roads enter it from the west. Agra may also be approached by water from the north, or from the east along the river Jumna, which changes its course here from north to south to west to east. The navigation is not, however, now used for passenger traffic; and the three railroads and the above three main roads are the principal means of access to Agra in the present day.

3. *Walls and fortifications.*—There are no walls round the city or station of Agra, and the fortifications of the fort itself are all that now remains of its defences. The outer wall of the fort is of great height, and would be of great strength if it were solid, but it is only constructed of rubble, &c., faced or veneered with stone, and would therefore crumble at once under the fire of modern artillery. The facing is composed of red sandstone, and the walls, which are nearly 70 feet high, and about a mile and a half in circuit, and which are surmounted everywhere by beehive crenellations, present a most imposing appearance.

None of the public buildings or private houses in Agra are fortified, nor are the barracks of the European troops.

Agra is situated on a bend of the river Jumna, where the river turns sharply to the east. The fort is exactly at this bend and on the edge of the river; the cantonments are to the south of the fort, and the civil station to the north and north-west. Starting from the south in cantonments, the lines of the European regiment are on the west, and those of the native infantry on the east; then come in a line from west to east the church, the *sadr bazár*, and the Metcalfe Memorial Hall; in the northern part of cantonments are the commissariat, executive engineer's, post, and other offices, and the club. The Taj Mahal is to the north-east of cantonments on the Jumna, and the fort is a little higher up the river and due north of cantonments.

In the civil station are first (to the south) the district cutcherries (west of the fort), then (proceeding along the Drummond Road) the municipality office, Government college, and St. John's College (east of the road), the old jail, Roman Catholic cathedral, and the old High Court buildings now used for the district civil courts. The new central jail is on the Muttra road, a little to the west of the main road, and in a line with the old jail.

The native city lies chiefly to the east of the central part of the civil station and between it and the river Jumna, but part of it is to the west of the Drummond Road, and various hamlets and detached houses are scattered about throughout the civil station and its immediate vicinity.

The sites of all three places—the cantonments, civil station, and city—are generally level, but the two latter are intersected every now and then by ravines which run up from the Jumna. The chief of these are one which starts from the Jumna near the fort and runs westward, past the district cutcherry and Government gardens, and another which starts from near the Jumma Masjid and runs through the city to the Government college, and then bends back to the municipality office, and extends westward to the old Government House.

The tract between the Táj and the fort is one mass of ravines, which extend southward towards cantonments, but no ravines actually traverse the latter.

4. *Houses.*—There are 34,050 houses in Agra, of which 25,171 are built of masonry and 8,879 of mud. Stone is largely used in the construction of houses in Agra, and the native city is perhaps better built than any other in the North-Western Provinces, the proportion of masonry to mud houses being much larger. In the city itself nearly all the houses are of masonry, the 8,000 mud houses being chiefly in the suburbs. The houses belonging to the better classes are

three and four stories high, and generally enclose a courtyard in the centre. The outer gateway leads into this, and the rooms are arranged around it. The upper floors often have carved balconies running round them, and the lower floors are very open, consisting chiefly of pillared verandas. The stone used for building comes from the west of Fatehpur Sikri and from the Bandroli hills. This stone is often carved and employed for doorposts, lintels, supports for balconies, &c.

5. *Foundation.*—The name of Agra is supposed to be derived from “Agar,” a saltpan, the soil all about the city being brackish, and salt having at one time been extensively manufactured here. Nothing is known of the origin of the city, nor has it any history of importance before the time of Akbar, who may be said to have founded it, as he established his court here and built the fort in 1566.

6. *Musalmán period.*—Before Akbar’s time Agra had been a residence of the kings of the Lodi dynasty, and it was occupied by the Emperor Babar after he had defeated Ibrahim Khán in 1526. His city, however, was on the left bank of the Jumna, and the foundations are still to be traced there. When he had established the Moghal instead of the Lodi dynasty, and had defeated the Rajpúts in a great battle near Fatehpur Sikri in 1527, he took up his residence at Agra, and died there in 1530. He was succeeded by his son Humayun, who in 1539 was driven back from the east to Agra, and in 1540 was expelled thence by Sher Shah, the chief of the Bengal Afghans, and forced to retreat to Sindh.

Humayun returned and recovered his sovereignty, but lived at Delhi, not Agra. His son Akbar succeeded him in 1556, and removed to Agra and built the fort in 1566. In 1568 he brought the gates of Chittur to Agra, and in 1570 he founded Fatehpur Sikri, intending apparently to make it his capital instead of Agra. From 1570 to 1600 Akbar was occupied with his conquests to the south and west; he returned to Agra in 1601, and died in 1605. During his reign the fort with all its palaces and the Moti Masjid were built.

He was succeeded by his son Jahangir, who built Akbar’s tomb at Sikandra, the mausoleum of Itimad-ud-daula, and the Jahangir Mahal of the Agra palace. Jahangir left Agra in 1618, and never returned. His son Shahjahan succeeded him, and returned to Agra in 1632, but left it again in 1637. During his reign the Táj Mahal was completed, and the Moti Masjid in the fort, the Jama Masjid, and the Khas Mahal built. In 1658 his fourth son, Aurangzeb, rebelled and deposed him, but Shahjahán lived in regal state for seven years more at Agra. Aurangzeb lived at Agra at first, and was attacked there in 1659 by the Rajá of Jodhpur, whom he defeated. About 1664 Aurangzeb removed

to Delhi, and the seat of empire was permanently transferred there. Agra sank into a second class city and was handed over to a governor, who had often to defend it against the attacks of the Jâts. In 1764 it was actually taken by the Jâts of Bhâratpur under Suraj Mal and Walter Reinhardt (Samru) : it was taken from them in 1770 by the Marhattas, and retaken by the imperial troops under Najaf Khan in 1774. From 1774 to 1784 he resided there as imperial minister and kept great state. Reinhardt died at Agra in 1778, and Najaf Khan removed to Delhi in 1779, dying there soon afterwards.

7. *English rule.*—Muhammad Beg, who had been governor of Agra for some time, was besieged there by the forces of the Emperor Shah Alam and of Madhoji Sindhia in 1784. Sindhia took Agra and held it till 1787, when his general was in turn besieged by the imperial troops under Ghulâm Kadir and Ismail Beg. General de Boigne raised the siege by defeating them in a battle near Fatehpur Sikri in June, 1788. After this John Hessing, a Dutchman, governed the fort for Sindhia till his death in 1802, and the Marhattas kept it till it was taken by Lord Lake on October 18th, 1803. Lord Lake had advanced into Upper Hindustan to attack Sindhia's forces under M. Bourquin. He took the fort of Aligarh on August 29th, 1803, and captured Delhi on September 7th ; thence, after being joined by the Bhartpur Jâts, he defeated the Marhattas near Agra on October 10th, and the fort surrendered on October 18th. From this time it remained a British frontier fortress till 1835, when the seat of Government of the N.-W. P. was removed there from Allahabad, and it became the capital of the province. It was constituted the headquarters of a commissioner, who had under him the districts of Agra, Muttra, Etawah, Etah, Mainpuri, and Farukhabad, and of a sessions judge, who also controlled the judicial courts of Muttra. The English rule remained undisturbed till the mutiny of 1857, when, after the mutiny of the Gwalior contingent, the Government had to retire into the fort on the 3rd July. On the 5th, after an indecisive skirmish at Sucheta, the mob rose in Agra, plundered the city, and burnt all the European houses. Partial order was restored in the city on the 8th July, and on the 29th Fatehpur Sikri was retaken from the rebels. During the months of June, July, and August the Government and officials remained shut up in the fort, occasional raids being made against the rebels in different directions ; but after Delhi fell in September the fugitives from there and the rebels from Central India advanced on Agra on October 6th. On the 10th Colonel Greathed's column from Delhi entered Agra, and was at once attacked by the rebels ; but it put them to flight, and finally relieved Agra from any further attacks. The Government was re-established at Agra for a time, but in February,

1858, it was transferred to Allahabad, which was considered a superior military position, and which was preferable on account of the junction of the railways there.

8. *Population and castes.*—In the census of 1872 the total population of the city and station of Agra was found to be 149,008. This was composed as follows :—

Hindús	... { Males	56,710
	... Females	47,211
				Total	...	103,921
Musalmáns	... { Males	21,939
	... Females	21,619
				Total	...	43,558
Others	... { Males	695
	... Females	834
				Total	...	1,529

Total males, 79,344 ; total females, 69,664.

No return of castes is given in the census report, but the occupations of all males above 15 years of age are noted, and those which exceeded 50 in number are as follows :—

Attorneys	93	Druggists	60	Leather bucket makers	
Bakers	260	Dyers	287	(ghi)	...
Bankers	93	Farriers	78	Lime sellers and burn-	
Barbers	776	Firework-makers	55	ers	...
Beggars	1,827	Fishmongers	85	Merchants	...
Blacksmiths	497	Flower-sellers	192	Ditto, cloth	...
Blind-makers	87	Flour-dealers	1,651	Ditto, cotton	...
Boatmen	169	Fuel-sellers (cowdung),	80	Milkmen	...
Booksellers	425	Goldsmiths	592	Money-changers	...
Braziers	812	Gold-thread embroiderers,	310	Money-lenders	...
Bricklayers	1,213	Government servants,	117	Oil-makers	...
Brokers	735	Grain-dealers	560	Painters and varnishers,	105
Calico-printers	241	Grain-parchers	314	Pandits	...
Carpenters	651	Greengrocers	809	Paper-makers and sell-	
Carpet-makers	517	Grocers	362	ers	...
Cart-drivers	729	Heads of guilds	60	Paint-sellers	...
Cattle-dealers	228	Herdsmen	107	Pedlars	...
Chair and basket makers,	86	Hookah-makers	67	Petty dealers	...
Confectioners	673	House proprietors	146	Perfumers, scent-makers,	54
Contractors	124	Labourers	6,987	Pleaders	...
Cotton-cleaners	213	Lac workers and sell-				Potters	...
Cultivators	1,578	ers	159	Priests, temple or	
Doctors	168	Landowners	240	ghát	...

AGRA CITY.

Parohits (family priests),	150	Stonemasons	... 355	Water-carriers	... 995
Schoolmasters	... 54	Sweepers	... 769	Weavers	... 2,614
Servants	... 14,365	Tailors	... 1,021	Weighmen	... 106
Shoemakers and sellers,	1,116	Tinmen and tinkers	... 93	Wine-sellers	... 108
Singers and musicians,	270	Tobacco-sellers	... 433	Wire-drawers	... 299
Silk weavers and spinners	... 201	Turners	... 84	Wood-sellers	... 2,116
Sieve-makers and sellers,	60	Victuallers, itinerant	... 213		
		Washermen	... 647		

As regards the proportions of the sexes and religions, there are 79 males to 70 females, and 242 Hindús to every 100 Musalmáns.

In the census of 1872 the number of houses and enclosures was as follows :—

Enclosures,	22,869...	Hindu	16,050
		Musalmán	6,676
		Christian, &c.	143
Houses,	34,050...	Hindu	24,556
		Musalmán	9,255
		Christian, &c.	239
Masonry houses,	25,171...	Hindu	17,556
		Musalmán	7,443
		Christian, &c.	172
Mud houses,	8,879...	Hindu	7,000
		Musalmán	1,812
		Christian, &c.	67

The population was divided as regards nationality, ages, occupation, and education as follows :—

		Hindús.		Musalmáns.		Christians, &c.		Total.	
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
NATIONALITY ...	Hindústanis	... 56,710	47,211	21,939	21,619	693	833	79,342	69,663
	Bengalis
	Panjabis
	Afghans
	Europeans	2	1	2	1
	Total	... 56,710	47,211	21,939	21,619	695	834	79,344	69,664
Age	Up to 15 years	... 19,291	16,026	7,946	7,616	328	467	27,555	24,109
	15 to 20 "	... 6,936	6,662	2,608	2,872	110	120	9,654	9,654
	20 to 30 "	... 12,353	9,878	4,634	4,273	108	110	17,095	14,261
	30 to 40 "	... 8,410	6,378	2,937	2,826	66	57	11,413	9,261
	40 to 50 "	... 5,490	4,369	2,024	2,009	53	39	7,567	6,417
	50 to 60 "	... 2,837	2,488	1,080	1,202	19	20	3,936	3,710
	Above 60 "	... 1,893	1,410	710	821	11	21	2,114	2,252
	Total	... 56,710	47,211	21,939	21,619	695	834	79,344	69,664

		Hindus.		Musalmans.		Christians, &c.		Total.	
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
OCCUPATION	Landowners ..	115	31	78	52	3	4	196	78
	Agriculturists ..	1,228	228	97	24	1,325	252
	Non-agriculturists,	55,367	46,952	21,764	21,543	692	830	77,823	69,825
	Total ..	56,710	47,211	21,939	21,619	695	834	79,344	69,664
EDUCATION	12 years of age ..	413	...	212	...	102	...	727	...
	12 to 20 ..	737	...	233	...	144	...	1,114	...
	Above 20 ..	2,436	...	746	...	103	...	3,285	...
	Total educated ..	3,586	...	1,191	...	349	...	5,126	...

9. *Trade and manufactures.*—There were at one time a great many cotton-presses in Agra, and cotton was sent in from all the surrounding districts to be pressed, but the number of screws at work has greatly diminished, though there is still a large trade in raw cotton.

Agra is a great grain mart, whence the traders to the south and west draw their supplies, and it is a centre to which the sugar and other products of Rohilkhand and the north converge before being dispersed to their ultimate destinations. It has also a large manufacture of shoes (native), pipe-stems, and khinkhab or gold lace, and is celebrated for its mosaic or marble inlaid work, like that in the Taj.

It imports sugar, tobacco, corn, salt, and cotton, and exports darris, gold-lace, and wrought stone. Agra, from being off the main line of the East Indian Railway, has hardly been so flourishing commercially of late years as it was previously; but the opening of the Rajputana and Scindia State Railways, particularly when these are connected with the Bombay railway system, will in all probability bring back to Agra its old commercial prosperity, and render it what it was before, the commercial metropolis of Northern India.

To Europeans the speciality of Agra is its inlaid stone-work, which is still as beautiful, as durable, and as skilfully manufactured as it was under the Moghal Emperors: it is very expensive from the extreme care required in its manufacture, and from the minuteness and delicacy of the work performed.

10. *Buildings. (A). Modern.*—The chief modern buildings of interest in Agra are—

(1) The Government college on the Drummond Road, where the pupils are educated to a very fairly high standard.

(2) The central prison on the Muttra road, where an average of 2,300 prisoners are constantly confined, and where a large manufactory of carpets, &c., is carried on.

(3) The judges' courts at the north end of the civil station, formerly the High Court of Justice.

(4) The Catholic Mission and Orphanage, a collection of large buildings devoted to the rearing and education of Catholic orphans. It was founded in the time of the Emperor Akbar, and is presided over by a Bishop. Behind it is a cemetery containing tombs dating from the earliest Christian settlements in Agra—Armenian, Portuguese, Dutch, and English—and including those of John Hessing, the Governor of Agra (1788-1802), and Walter Reinhardt, or Samru (died 1778).

(B) *Ancient*.—The chief ancient buildings are (1) the fort, which is situated on the right bank of the Jumna, at the great bend in the river, and between the cantonments and the civil station. It is built of red sandstone, and the vast red walls and outworks make it an imposing structure, whether seen from land or from the river. The oldest buildings still existent inside the fort are built of the same red sandstone, and date from Akbar's reign. In front of the main entrance is the Tripolia, a walled square or piazza, which is used as a market place. On the side opposite this entrance is the Jama Masjid, or great mosque, placed on a raised platform and reached by steps eleven feet high. The main building is divided into three compartments, each opening upon the courtyard by a fine archway, and each surmounted by a curious dome of white and red sandstone. It was built by Shahjahan in 1644, and took five years to complete. It is 130 feet long by 100 broad, and was built in the name of Shahjahan's daughter, Jahánara.

The walls of the fort are nearly 70 feet high and about a mile and a half in circuit, but they are only faced with stone, and are not really strong.

In entering the fort the deep moat which surrounds it is crossed by a drawbridge leading through a massive gateway and up a paved ascent to the inner entrance, which consists of two octagonal towers of red sandstone, inlaid with ornamental designs in white marble : the passage between them is covered by two domes. This entrance is known as the Delhi gate, and is opposite to the great mosque. Within it are all the great buildings, the first of which is the Diwan-i-am, or public audience hall, formerly used as an armoury. This was built in 1685 by Aurangzeb. It was the public hall and business place of the palace, and is 192 feet by 64 ; the large court on which it opens was the tilt-yard. The emperor and his nobles sat in the open hall, while the general public occupied three sides

of the cloisters. The emperor sat on a raised throne, and behind it was a door by which he could retire to the Machi Bhawan and private apartments of the palace. The palace itself, with the exception of the quadrangle at the water-gate, is not of Akbar's time, but was built by his son and grandson. In the centre is a great court 500 feet by 370, surrounded by arcades and approached at opposite ends through a succession of courts opening into one another. The Diwan-i-am is on one side, and behind it are two smaller courts, the one (Machi Bhawan) containing the Diwan-i-khas, and the other (the Angúri Bagh) the harem.

Three sides were occupied by the residences of the ladies, and the fourth by three white pavilions. The Diwan-i-khás, or hall of private audience, consists of two halls, 64 feet long, 34 feet broad, and 22 high, and was built in 1637. The Machi Bhawan, or court between it and the Diwan-i-am, was probably built by Shahjahán : on the river side of this court are two thrones, one of white marble and the other of black slate. The substructures of the palace are of red sandstone, but the corridors, rooms, pavilions, &c., are of white marble elaborately carved.

Next to the Diwan-i-khas comes the Shish Mahal, or palace of glass, which is an oriental bath adorned with thousands of small mirrors, and to the south of this is a large red building called the Jahangir Mahal, with a fine two-storied façade and relieving lines of white marble ; one of the inner courts is 70 feet square, and both are of red stone : between them is a handsome entry supported on pillars.

The Moti Masjid, or pearl mosque, is to the north of the Diwan-i-am : it is built on a lofty sandstone platform, and it has three domes of white marble with gilded spires. The domes crown a corridor open towards the court, and divided into three aisles by a triple row of Saracenic arches. The mosque is 142 feet long by 56 deep, and was built by Shahjahán in 1654.

(2.) The Táj is reached from the fort by the strand road along the river, made in the famine of 1838 : it was erected as a mausoleum for the remains of Arjamand Benu Begam, wife of the Emperor Shahjahán, and called Mumtáz-i-Mahal, or the exalted one of the palace. Her father was Asaf Khán, brother of the celebrated Nur Jahán, who was wife of the preceding Emperor Jahángir ; they were of Persian extraction, and were children of the Itmad-ud-daula, whose tomb is on the other side of the river. She was married to Shahjahán about 1615, and died in 1629 at Burhanpur in the Dakhin, whence her body was conveyed here. The building was commenced soon after her death and finished in 1648 : the white marble of which it is built came from Jaipur, and the red sandstone from Fatehpur Sikri. The design of the Táj is purely oriental, but

the inlaid mosaic work is of Italian origin. It is said to have cost nearly two millions sterling. The Taj is on the right bank of the Jumna, a mile east of the fort : it stands in a large garden, inclosed by a lofty wall of red sandstone, with arched galleries round the interior, and it is approached by a great gateway of sandstone inlaid with ornaments in white marble.

The central building itself is a square with the corners truncated : it stands on a lofty platform with a minaret at each corner, and the platform again is raised on a great terrace of solid masonry. The edifice is crowned with an oriental dome, swelling to nearly two-thirds of a sphere, and tapering at the top into a spire tipped with a crescent : there are four similar but much smaller domes at the four corners. On each side there is a grand entrance with a single pointed arch and two smaller arches on either side. The whole is constructed of pure white marble, and it is inlaid with designs in brown and violet marble. The enclosure is 1,860 feet by 1,000 feet, the outer court is 1,000 feet by 450 feet. The plinth of white marble is 18 feet high, and is a square of 313 feet. The towers at the corners are 137 feet high.

The mausoleum itself occupies 186 feet square. The central dome is 50 feet in diameter by 80 feet high. The whole building is 243 feet high to the top of the pinnacle.

(3.) The tomb of Itmád-ud-daulah is on the left bank of the river, just above the railway bridge. The above name was a court title given him by the emperor, his real name being Ghaias-ud-din : he was the grandfather of Mumtaz-i-Mahal, in whose honour the Taj was erected, and was Vazir to his son-in-law Jahangir : he died in 1621-22.

The mausoleum is in a well kept garden : the lower hall is a parallelogram of marble inlaid with coloured stones ; it stands on a sandstone terrace 149 feet square and 3½ feet high : there are four kiosques at the four corners, and in the centre is a small pavilion of rich pierced work covered with an oblong dome. The tomb was completed in 1628 by Nur Jahán, Itmád-ud-daulah's daughter and Jahángir's wife.

(4.) About 5 miles from Agra on the Delhi road is the tomb of the Emperor Akbar : a beautiful gateway opens into a garden, at the end of which is a five-storied building, the upper chamber being of white marble, with latticed windows and crowned by four small kiosques. It was constructed by the Emperor Jahángir, who in 1608 demolished all that had been then finished and rebuilt it. It was completed in 1613. The height of the whole from the ground is 74 feet. The real tomb is in a vault below the floor of the building.

ALLAHABAD CITY.

ALLAHABAD.

A CITY IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

Position, area, &c.—Allahabad is situated in $25^{\circ} 26' 0''$ north latitude and $81^{\circ} 55' 15''$ east longitude. It covers with its suburbs an area of 22,202 acres, and contains 31,651 houses, a population of 143,693 souls, and has a municipal revenue of £18,987, or Re. 1-5-2 per head : it is the first city of the Allahabad division, and the third of the North-Western Provinces. It is situated on the left bank of the river Jumna, about 3 miles west of its confluence with the Ganges. It is about 340 feet above the level of the sea, 564 miles from Calcutta (by rail) and 89 from Benares.

2. *Approaches.*—Allahabad is situated on the isthmus or neck of land between the Ganges and the Jumna, just above their junction ; and the civil station, cantonments, and city cover nearly the whole space between the rivers for six miles west of the point of junction.

Allahabad is approached from the land or westward side by the East Indian Railway and by the Grand Trunk Road, which run nearly parallel, but cross each other just west of the new cantonments. The railway station is south of the station and cantonments of Allahabad, and between them and the city.

By water Allahabad may be approached in three ways—two from the Ganges and one from the Jumna. The most northerly is the Papamau bridge of boats, crossing the Ganges due north of the civil station, and leading into Oudh. The central one is the Jhusi bridge of boats, which crosses the Ganges from Jhusi due east of the station and leads to Benares and Calcutta.

The most southerly has no bridge of boats and is merely a ferry across the Jumna from the Arail, or south side, to the city of Allahabad : there are several landing places on the city side, viz., at the railway bridge, at the fort, and at the Bhalua Ghát, near the Rájá of Benares' house.

Allahabad is also approached from the east by the East Indian Railway, which crosses the Jumna by a magnificent girder bridge and enters Allahabad between the fort and the city.

3. *Walls and fortifications.*—There are no walls round the city or station of Allahabad, but the fort itself is inclosed with walls and a glacis. There

is a project for fortifying the whole settlement of Allahabad by constructing a canal across from the Ganges to the Jumna west of the settlement, and then erecting forts at intervals along its line : this canal, with the two rivers Jumna and Ganges, would then completely isolate Allahabad from all sudden attacks.

The fort is situated on the banks of the Jumna $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile from its point of union with the Ganges, and its guns command both rivers and the opposite shores. It is 2 miles from Government House, 1 mile from the nearest part of the city, $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the public offices, and 4 miles from the European lines. An account of the fort is given under para. 14 ; from a military point of view, it is the place of most importance between Delhi and Calcutta, and a scheme for greatly increasing its strength and armament is now before Government. There are at present no other fortifications in Allahabad, the European and artillery barracks, native infantry and cavalry lines, and the public offices being all unfortified.

4. *Site.*—The city of Allahabad is situated much nearer the Jumna than the Ganges, and reaches down to the shore of the former river. It extends north as far as the East Indian Railway and the Khusrubagh, south to the Jumna, east to Kydganj, within a mile of the fort, and west to the junction of the Cawnpore and Grand Trunk Roads near the railway. The whole of this site is level and unbroken, except close to the Jumna, from which a few ravines run up : there is no rising ground in it, but the land of course slopes down towards the Jumna, and there is a large tract of low land near the Ganges ; on this the race course has been made.

The civil station is situated north of the railway and the city, and extends from near the railway station north-eastwards through Cannington, Kuttra, and Colonelganj to the old civil station south of the cavalry lines ; it is about 4 miles long from the Allahabad Bank at the south-west end to the few houses beyond the Bank of Bengal at the north-east end ; and it stretches from 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile on each side of the Cawnpore Road, and its continuation the Lane Road and Post Office Road. Nearly the whole of the civil station is on a perfectly flat plain, but there is some raviny ground north of the Thornhill Road, and the land about the Alfred Park and Government House is somewhat undulating. The new cantonments are west of the civil station, and stretch from the Ganges on the north to the East Indian Railway on the south (3 miles), and from the civil station on the east to Kanheiapur on the west (2 miles). On the north, next the Ganges, are the native infantry lines, in the centre the barracks, &c., of the European infantry regiment, and to the south those of the artiller. They quarters of the staff, and the mess and officers' quarters of the European

regiment are on the eastern boundary of the cantonment near the general's house. The ground in this portion is all level and unbroken, with the exception of the northern part about the native infantry lines, which is very raviny. The old cantonments, which are now only used for the native cavalry regiment, are to the north of the civil station, between it and Phaphamau : they extend from near the Bank of Bengal to Phaphamau ($1\frac{1}{2}$ mile), and from the Ganges to the new Phaphamau road ($1\frac{1}{2}$ mile) : they will probably revert to civil uses when the cavalry regiment is removed to the new cantonments. The southern portion of this tract is level, but the northern and western parts are broken up by ravines from the Ganges. There is a fifth division of the Allahabad settlement constituted by the tract of land lying east of the civil station and including the fort, Daraganj, Akbar's band, and all the lowland lying between these. This is very liable to inundation, and in 1874 was completely submerged for some time. It is all flat and level, and slopes away gradually to the Ganges.

5. *Houses*.— Most of the streets, as in all Eastern cities, are narrow and close, but the main chauk, the city road (from the civil station through the city towards the Jumna), Johnsanganj, and the road from the Colvin Dispensary to the railway station are broad and well laid out. Most of the houses are built of masonry (burnt brick set in mud), plain and straight-fronted, with balconies on the first floor, and either two or three stories high. The roofs are generally tiled, but many houses have flat mortar roofs laid on stones (or slates) and timber : those in the suburbs are often built of mud, and are only one story high.

The houses in the city vary from a mud hovel of the above description up to the garden palace of the Alopí Bagh and the half European mansions of the wealthy bankers and merchants in Dáraganj and Kydganj. Stone is but little used in building, though it is procurable at no great distance up the Jumna in the quarries at Sheorajpur and Partábpur in parganah Báráh.

6. *Foundation*.— The first mention of the city of Allahabad is in the Mahábhárata, where it is called Váranávata ; and the Pandwa brethren were banished here about the 14th century (B.C.)

The fort and the city as it now exists were founded by the Emperor Akbar in 1575, but a fort, and perhaps a city, existed at the junction of the Ganges and the Jumna from the very earliest times ; and it is probable that by this the Aryan Khsatriyas secured all their conquests on the upper valleys of the Ganges and Jumna and overawed all Lower Bengal. Tod says that the annals of the Jasalmir family of the Yadú stock give the priority of foundation to Prág, at the confluence of the Yamuna and Ganga, and it was

visited by Megasthenes, the ambassador of Seleucus, so that there was certainly a city there in the days of the Macedonian empire.

7. *Early history.*—In the time of the Rámáyana Allahabad was under the Rájá of Kosála, whose capital was at Ajodhya (Faizábád). When Ráma, Sita, and Lakshman were banished, Guha, king of the Bhils, escorted them to Allahabad, and sent them on to Bundelkhand.

The next mention of Allahabad is four centuries after Christ, when Fah Hian, the Chinese pilgrim, visited it, and it was then still part of the kingdom of Kosála. In the beginning of the 7th century (A.D.) Hwen Tsang, another Chinese traveller, passed through it, and it then bore its Hindu name of Prág, which is still quite commonly used by Hindús, though the Musalmán name given it by Akbar has superseded the other in official and general use.

8. *Hindu times.*—There is really no history of Allahabad till we reach Muhammadan times: all that is known of the Hindu period is that the northern part of the district across the Ganges formed part of the kingdom of Kosála, and that the portion south of the Ganges was under the Bhil and other Bundelkhand chiefs, so that the city itself, so far as it then existed, was probably a Bhil settlement. When Hwen Tsang visited it he found only two Buddhist convents and hundreds of Hindu temples, but long before that it must have been of some importance as a seat of the Buddhist religion.

9. *Musalmán period.*—The Musalmáns first conquered Allahabad under the guidance of Shaháb-ud-din Ghor in 1194. During the 13th and 14th centuries it belonged to the province of Karrah, and was governed from there. In 1376 Karrah was merged in the great province which was then constituted as the eastern one, and which extended from Kanauj to Bahar, and Allahabad of course went with it. The Emperor Babar wrested the district from the Pathans in 1529, and in 1575 Akbar re-named the city and erected the fort.

Towards the end of his reign, his son Salím, who was afterwards the Emperor Jahángir, was governor of Allahabad, and lived in the fort. His two sons, Khusru and Khurram, lived with him till Akbar's death, when Salím became emperor as Jahángir, and Khusru at once rebelled against his father: he was twice defeated and captured and was at last made over to his brother Khurram (afterwards Shahjahán), in whose custody he died in 1615, and the mausoleum in the Khusru Bagh at Allahabad was then erected in his honour: it was completed in 1622.

Saiad Abdulla was governor of Allahabad from 1707 to 1712, and after joining in the conspiracy which raised Farokhsir to the throne of Delhi, he was attacked by Jahandar Shah, whose forces he defeated, though they invested

the fort for a time (1712). He continued to govern till 1721, when he was defeated by Muhammad Khan Bangash, who succeeded him, but was removed in 1724.

In 1736 Allahabad was overrun by the Mahrattas, but even before this, in 1721, a Hindu named Girdhar seized Allahabad and fortified it, and the Nawáb of Oudh had to make him governor of Oudh before he could get possession of Allahabad again.

The Mahrattas held Allahabad from 1736 till 1750, when the Patháns of Farukhabad sacked it; but in 1753 it was taken by Safdar Jang, the Nawáb of Oudh, who held it till 1765, when the English restored it to the Emperor Shah Alam.

The allied forces of the Emperor and of the Nawáb of Oudh were defeated by Clive at Buxar in October, 1764, and Allahabad was given back to the Emperor, who resided there till 1771, when he went to Delhi. There he was completely in the hands of the Mahrattas, who claimed Allahabad in 1773, but the English repudiated the claim and sold Allahabad to the Nawáb of Oudh for 50 lakhs in 1774.

10. *English rule.*—The English first took possession of Allahabad on the 20th March, 1772, when they seized the fort and held it against the Mahrattas.

The district and province were sold to the Nawáb, but the English continued to hold the fort, and the tribute to be paid for the English troops which were sent to aid the Nawáb kept getting more and more into arrears, so that at last in 1799 negotiations for a cession of territory in lieu of the tribute were begun. These ended with the treaty of Lucknow, which was signed on the 10th November, 1801, and by which Allahabad and the Doáb was ceded to the English, in whose possession it has remained ever since.

It was the seat of the Provincial Government from 1834 to 1835, when the Government removed to Agra; but after the mutiny in 1858 it again moved back to Allahabad. It has always been the headquarters of a commissioner and of a civil and sessions judge, and since 1868 it has been the seat of the High Court of Judicature and of all the great public offices.

In the mutiny of 1857 Allahabad was the scene of one of the worst outbreaks and massacres which occurred in the North-West Provinces. The news of the outbreak at Meerut reached Allahabad on the 12th May, and that of the Delhi massacre on the 17th. On the 19th two troops of the 3rd Oudh Irregulars, who had been despatched by Sir H. Lawrence, arrived from Partabgarh. About the 20th sixty European invalid artillerymen arrived from Chunar : these, with a wing of the Firozpur Sikh regiment and one company of the 6th Native Infantry, formed the garrison of the fort; the rest of the 6th and

the irregulars were kept outside." On the 22nd the native officers of the irregulars gave information that they had been asked by the 6th Native Infantry to join in preventing the removal of the treasure to the fort if it was attempted. On the 23rd most of the Europeans moved into the fort, but nothing happened for some days, and the majority returned to their own houses. On the 24th the 6th Native Infantry gave up two Mewati spies whom they said had been tampering with them, and from that time till the 3rd of June all was quiet. On that day Sir H. Lawrence telegraphed from Lucknow that the Sikhs were not to be trusted. On the 4th all telegraphic communication was stopped, and the news of the Benares outbreak arrived, and of the march of the mutineer regiments towards Allahabad. On the 5th all Europeans (64) were ordered into the fort, armed, and placed under a European officer. On the morning of the 6th several Europeans refused to obey this order and returned to their own houses. At 6 p.m. the 6th Native Infantry were paraded to hear read a letter of thanks from the Governor-General for their offer to march against Delhi, and they cheered it loudly, but at 9-15 p.m. they broke into open mutiny at Dáráganj near the bridge, seized the two guns which had been entrusted to them, and commenced dragging them towards cantonments. Lieutenant Harward, the officer in command, after vainly trying to stem the mutiny, galloped off to Alopiganj (between Dáráganj and the cantonments), where Lieutenant Alexander was posted with two troops of the Oudh Irregulars. With these men Alexander and Harward set out to recover the guns; but when they came up with them only three men joined in the charge, all the rest went over to the mutineers, and Alexander was shot dead by a volley from the sepoys. Harward then galloped off to the fort. When the firing began 17 officers were assembled in the 6th mess-house. The bugle was sounded in the lines, and most of the officers hastened there. Each was received with a volley and killed on the spot; only Colonel Simson, Captain Garden, Lieutenant Hicks, and Ensign Currie escaped, with two unposted cadets, Pearson and Woodgate. Next morning (7th) the jail was broken open and all the prisoners released, the whole of the station burnt and plundered, and every European found in it murdered, to the number of 31.

During the night of the 6th, and as soon as it was known that the main body of the 6th had mutinied, the company within the fort was paraded near the main gate; they had loaded muskets and were much inclined to resist, but were overawed by the artillerymen, who stood to their guns with lighted portfires, and the 60 volunteers, with their loaded rifles, ready to fire on the slightest sign of resistance. After the disarming the whole company was turned out of the fort, and only Sikhs and Europeans remained within it.

On the morning after the mutiny (7th June) 50 of the 1st Madras Fusiliers arrived at Jhúsi on the other side of the river and reached the fort by night; on the 9th another detachment of 50 arrived, and on the 11th General Neill, with 40 more, himself reached Allahabad. Up to this time there had been great confusion and insubordination inside the fort, but Neill at once took the command, re-organized the force in the fort, and commenced operations against the enemy. The rebels had then closely invested the fort, and held Dáraganj and the bridge of boats. On the morning of the 12th Neill opened fire on them from the fort guns and attacked them at the same time. They were driven out and the bridge retaken. On the 13th 100 more Madras Fusiliers arrived, and Kydganj and Jhúsi were attacked and cleared by the volunteers under Mr. Willock, C.S. On the 14th the *Jumna* arrived with more Fusiliers, and the Sikhs were removed outside the fort, which was now entirely garrisoned by Europeans.

On the 15th a united attack by land and water was made—on land Kydganj and Motiganj were taken, and the steamer moved up the *Jumna* to support the land troops. The rebels were driven back into the city and defeated with great loss. The next day (16th) the Maulvi Liaqat Ali, who had headed the outbreak, and his followers fled, and a large number of Christians, chiefly natives, were released from the city.

On the 17th June the magistrate, Mr. Court, re-occupied the Kotwali and installed his police officers again, and on the 18th the station and cantonments were cleared of all rebels and completely re-occupied. The remainder of the Madras Fusiliers and 100 men of the 84th reached Allahabad by the 22nd; and having now a large European force, General Neill determined on sending a relieving column to Cawnpore. Accordingly on the 30th of June the column under Major Renaud was despatched, consisting of 400 Fusiliers, 300 Sikhs, 120 irregular cavalry, and two guns. Mr. Willock accompanied this force. General Havelock arrived on the 1st of July, and the news of the massacre at Cawnpore was received on the same day from Sir H. Lawrence. General Havelock despatched 100 Fusiliers and two guns by steamer on the 3rd, and ordered Renaud to halt till he could join him. On the 7th July Havelock started from Allahabad with 1,000 Europeans and three guns. Mr. Sherer went with him as civil officer.

On the 15th 280 men of the 84th were despatched, and on the 16th General Neill started for Cawnpore. Havelock's force joined Renaud's at Khágá on the 11th July, and on the 12th had its first engagement with the rebels at Belinda.

After the restoration of order in Allahabad itself the Doáb parganas were almost deserted, as the inhabitants had almost universally rebelled. The

trans-Ganges parganas remained in arms against us under the old talukdars, and the trans-Jumna parganas were kept loyal and quiet by the influence of the Rájás of Manda, Dihya, and Barra. In the Doáb, Hanuman Singh, an escaped convict, fortified himself at Karrah, on the line of railway, in December, and on the 15th December Brigadier Campbell sent a force there which demolished his works and dispersed his party. He then joined Dhalun Singh at Dhurawal in Atherban, and remained in open rebellion there till the fall of Báná (April 19th, 1858), when he fled into Rewah, and the Doáb parganas were completely recovered and quieted.

In the trans-Ganges parganas Mr. Mayne was sent out with the Benares levies, and kept the Grand Trunk Road clear from July, 1857, till January, 1858, when Brigadier Campbell advanced from Allahabad with a force, and driving off the rebels and defeating the Naib Nazim of Salone at Mansetha, 8 miles from Allahabad, pushed Mr. Mayne's post forward again to Phulpur.

The rebels, however, afterwards returned to Phaphamau until General Franks advanced to Soraon and drove the rebels before him into Oudh after defeating them at Nasratpur. Mr. Mayne then advanced to Soraon and kept the trans-Ganges parganas in order till he returned to Báná in April. Mr. Court reduced all the Doáb parganas except Atherban to order before he left on sick leave in April, and Atherban was entirely recovered after the fall of Báná, but the Oudh rebels continued to make incursions into the trans-Ganges parganas and to burn and plunder, till Brigadier Berkeley marched against them and took the fort of Dehion on the 14th of July, from which time order was completely restored throughout the district.

11. *Population and castes.*—In the census of 1872 the total population of the city and station of Allahabad was found to be 143,693. This was composed as follows:—

Hindús	... {	Males	58,866
	Females		44,667
				Total	...	103,473
Musalmáns	... {	Males	21,339
	Females		18,010
				Total	...	39,379
Others	... {	Males	439
	Females		402
				Total	...	841

Total males, 80,644 ; total females, 63,049.

No return of the castes is given in the census reports, but the occupations of all males above 15 years of age are noted, and those which exceeded 50 in number are as follows:—

Barbers	134	Merchants...	130
Beggars	1,824	Money-lenders	249
Boatmen	113	Prisoners	487
Bricklayers	81	Priests (family)	1,281
Butchers	99	Servants	28,564
Carpenters	313	Shopkeepers	8,279
Cart-drivers	57	Shoemakers	189
Contractors	106	Sweepers	86
Cultivators	2,204	Tailors	180
Goldsmiths	688	Washermen	500
Labourers	12,729	Weavers	209
Landowners	574	Total	54,126

As regards the proportions of the sexes and religions, there are 81 males to 63 females, and 253 Hindús to every 100 Musalmáns. All the ordinary castes of the North-Western Provinces are of course found in a city of this size, but the most remarkable is that of the Pragwals or Allahabad Brahmans, who act as priests and bathers at all the fairs and occasions when strangers come to bathe at the confluence of the Ganges and Jumna, particularly at the Magh Mela in January. They are a turbulent, licentious, and unscrupulous class, who give much employment to the criminal courts, and are but little fitted for the semi-sacred functions which they assume. The chief of the bankers and larger traders are Khattris and Brahmans, and the law courts and public offices afford employment to a large and, on the whole, respectable class of Musalmáns and Kayaths.

In the census of 1872 the number of houses and of enclosures in Allahabad was as follows:—

Enclosures	...	21,430	Hindu	15,926
			Musalman	5,869
			Christian, &c.	135
Houses	...	31,651	Hindu	23,345
			Musalman	8,117
			Christian, &c.	189
Masonry houses	...	3,931	Hindu	8,226
			Musalman	655
			Christian, &c.	40
Mud houses	...	27,720	Hindu	20,119
			Musalman	7,452
			Christian, &c.	149

The population was divided as regards nationality, ages, occupation, and education as follows:—

		<i>Hindús.</i>		<i>Musalmáns.</i>		<i>Christians, &c.</i>		<i>Total.</i>	
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
NATIONALITY.	Hindústanis	... 58,326	44,155	21,299	18,032	409	353	80,034	62,540
	Europeans	23	39	23	39
	Panjabis	... 1	1	...
	Bengalis	... 528	445	2	2	530	447
	Afghans	38	6	38	6
	Madrasis	... 11	7	11	7
	Jews	7	10	7	10
	Total	... 58,866	44,607	21,339	18,040	439	402	80,644	63,049
AGE.	Up to 15 years	... 17,365	15,411	6,664	6,316	169	157	24,198	21,884
	15 to 20 ditto	... 5,736	5,424	2,332	2,275	48	51	8,116	7,750
	20 to 30 ditto	... 13,370	9,361	4,803	3,797	102	88	18,275	13,246
	30 to 40 ditto	... 9,757	6,282	3,402	2,514	43	51	13,202	8,847
	40 to 50 ditto	... 5,673	4,178	1,992	1,767	87	27	7,702	5,982
	50 to 60 ditto	... 2,647	2,217	1,044	864	21	12	3,712	3,093
	Above 60 ditto	... 1,278	1,302	507	507	19	6	1,804	1,815
	Total	... 55,826	44,175	20,744	18,040	439	402	77,009	62,617
OCCUPATION.	Landowners	... 197	104	378	240	575	344
	Agriculturists	... 2,309	1,730	384	358	2,693	2,088
	Non-agriculturists	... 56,360	42,773	20,577	17,142	439	402	77,376	60,617
	Total	... 58,866	44,607	21,339	18,040	439	402	80,644	63,049
EDUCATION.	12 years of age	... 708	...	165	...	21	6	889	6
	12 to 20 ditto	... 777	...	163	...	39	15	979	15
	Above 20 ditto	... 3,227	...	1,006	...	114	4	4,347	4
	Total educated	... 4,707	...	1,334	...	174	25	6,215	25

12. *Trade and manufactures.*—Allahabad is not famous for any particular trade or manufacture, but it has long been a trading mart of considerable importance, and since the completion of the railway system of Upper India an enormous quantity of goods of all descriptions pass through Allahabad by rail, or are sent to Allahabad to be thence despatched by rail elsewhere.

The above census returns do not discriminate the different trades, but put down merchants 130 and shopkeepers 8,279, while money-lenders number

249, goldsmiths 688, and carpenters 313. There is no doubt a considerable trade in gold and silver ornaments and in European furniture, but Allahabad is rather an exchange mart for the purchase and sale of goods produced at other places than an emporium for the sale of goods manufactured within the city itself.

The following table shows the traffic and passenger returns at the various stations on the East Indian Railway which traverse the district of Allahabad in three directions :—

Goods station.	<i>Half-year ended December, 1875.</i>				
	Forwarded.		Received.		
	Tons.	Tons.			
Nawāī	...	105		154	
Sirsa Road	...	974		249	
Karchana	...	95		41	
Nainī	...	277		46	
Allahabad	...	3,261		16,779	
Manaurī	...	758		583	
Bharwārī	...	88		65	
Sirāthū	...	942		459	
Jasra	...	243		153	
Shiorājpur	...	2,261		60	
Total	...	9,004		18,589	

The first eight stations are on the main line from Calcutta to Delhi, running through the district from east to west, and the last two are on the branch line to Jabalpur, which runs in a south-westerly direction through the trans-Jumna parganas :—

Number of passengers.

Stations.	<i>Year ended December, 1875.</i>		
	Outwards.		Inwards.
Nawāī	...	6,283	6,088
Sirsa Road	...	10,903	10,704
Karchana	...	7,806	7,689
Nainī	...	68,676	90,019
Allahabad	...	278,695	301,669
Manaurī	...	12,910	11,723
Bharwārī	...	14,747	15,791
Sirāthū	...	22,271	27,617
Jasra	...	6,443	5,704
Shiorājpur	...	4,363	4,189
Total	...	433,297	481,19

13. Buildings. (A.)—Modern.

(1) The Government Press, at the intersection of the Cawnpore and Elgin Roads, a large pile of red brick, erected at a cost of about £30,000, and containing all the offices, machinery, &c., connected with the Government printing establishments in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh.

(2) The European barracks, situated on the plain to the west of the civil station, and at the west end of the Thornhill Road. These consist of several ranges of two-storied barracks, supplemented by kitchens, offices, &c., and officers' quarters and mess-houses. Those for the European infantry are to the north, and those for the artillery to the south.

(3) The North-Western Provinces Club, at the junction of the Thornhill and Stanley Roads—a substantial building with an arched roof and having dormitories at each side of it.

(4) The Roman Catholic Cathedral, a little east of the Club and on the Thornhill Road, built of red brick, with a tower, but still unfinished.

(5) The Thornhill and Mayne Memorial in the Alfred Park, erected in honour of Mr. C. B. Thornhill, who, as commissioner of Allahabad, planned the new civil station after the mutiny ; and Mr. F. O. Mayne, C.B., who, when commissioner of Allahabad, died there of cholera in 1872. This is intended to be a public library and museum.

(6) The Central College, which is to be the chief educational establishment in the North-Western Provinces, is being erected at the corner of the Thornhill and City Roads. It was instituted by Sir W. Muir, and the foundation stone was laid by Lord Northbrook in 1874. It is about half completed now (1877).

(7) The Mayo Memorial and Town Hall, erected by public subscription after the assassination of Lord Mayo. It is at the corner of the Thornhill and Stanley Roads, and is now nearly completed. It will have a lofty tower 180 feet high.

(8) The Government House, situated in a park-like enclosure east of the Alfred Park, on slightly rising ground and looking to the east. It has a central suite of public rooms, with a long curved wing containing the private rooms on each side of the centre.

(B.)—Ancient.

(1) The Khushru Bagh, or garden and mausoleum of Prince Khushru. This is on the south or city side of the railway station, and is surrounded by a lofty and solid brick wall : the entrance archway is nearly opposite to the railway station.

It was originally the pleasure ground of Salím, the son of the Emperor Akbar, and afterwards himself the Emperor Jahangir. He was governor of Allahabad during the latter years of his father's reign, and resided in the palace in the fort. He had two wives, and a son by each: the one was a daughter of the Rájá of Amber (Jaipur), who bore him Khushru (fair face), born in 1588; the other was a princess of Márwár, by whom he had Khurram, afterwards the Emperor Shahjahán.

The Prince Salím gave Akbar much trouble, and was in constant rebellion against him, so that the Amber princess's brother, Man Singh, hoped to supplant Salim as heir to Akbar by his son Khushru. These intrigues so grieved the princess that she committed suicide, and soon afterwards Salím succeeded his father Akbar on the throne quietly. Khushru fled to Lahore and broke out into open rebellion in 1605: he was defeated and seized, but pardoned by his father. He soon rebelled again, was again taken and made over to the custody of his younger brother, Prince Khurram. In that custody he very soon died in 1615, and suspicions arose that his death was not altogether natural. To allay these his father and brother erected in his honour the mausoleum which now stands in the Khushru Bagh and declared him a martyr. His mother had been buried there in 1606, and his tomb was erected close to hers, but was not completed till 1622. It is a large and handsome domed building in the style of the Taj at Agra; the true tomb is underground, and the building above it is large and lofty; the plaster of the interior is painted with birds and flowers.

A little to the west of Khushru's tomb is another mausoleum, supposed to have been intended for Khushru's sister, but she died and was buried elsewhere.

The next building, which is a quaint, four-sided, two-storied place, is supposed to be the tomb of the mother of Khushru, the Amber Princess, or "Shah Begam" as she is called in the inscriptions on the tomb.

(2) *The fort*—Is situated on the left or north bank of the Jumna, $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile above its point of junction with the Ganges. The present fort was built by the Emperor Akbar in 1575, but the site is probably that of the old Hindu city, said to be the oldest capital of the lunar dynasty of Kshatris. The castle as it existed in Musalmán times has been almost entirely swept away, the high towers having been cut down, and the stone ramparts topped with turfed parapets and fronted with a sloping glacis.

On entering the fort the new powder magazine is on the left, the officers' quarters an ajetories, &c., on the right. In front is an open space, in the middle of which is Asoka's pillar, and on the further side the barracks for the troops to the north, and the old palace, which is now the arsenal, to the south or

river side. Between the palace and the factories is the underground temple containing the sacred tree. Asoka's pillar now stands in an enclosure and garden made by Major Fitzroy, of the 5th Fusiliers. It is a lofty and elegant monolith with three inscriptions of Asoka, Samudra, Gupta, and Jahangir respectively.

It was first erected by King Asoka about 240 B.C., for the purpose of promulgating his edicts for the spread of Buddhism, and was probably first placed somewhere near where it is now.

It was next used by Samudra Gupta about 200 A.D. to inscribe the records of his victories and sovereignty over the various nations of India. It was again re-erected by the Moghal Emperor Jahāngir to commemorate his accession to the throne in 1605 A.D. when he succeeded Akbar. It was prostrate from 1363 to 1600, as all the writings of that age on it are longitudinal, not vertical. It was finally re-erected by Captain E. Smith in 1838, and has remained in its present position since then.

South of the Asoka column and nearer the arsenal is the underground temple which contains the Akshai Bāt or undying banian tree. This was supposed to be a large tree with spreading branches, but it is now only a bifurcated log placed at the side of the crypt, and renewed every few years by the priests of the temple. This temple, which is dedicated to Shiva, is supposed to be the place where the Saraswati or third river unites with the Jumna and Ganges, and the moisture on the walls of the underground chapels is pointed out as the proof of its existence.

The tree was described by the Chinese traveller Hwen Tsang in the 7th century after Christ, so that the traditions connected with it must be of great antiquity. The temple and tree were at one time no doubt on a level with the ground, but all the buildings are now subterranean.

(3). Akbar's Bund or embankment is a mound of earth running from the east end of the old civil station across the intervening lowland to Dáráganj, and thence to the fort. It is about $1\frac{3}{4}$ mile in length and 20 to 30 feet high, and is even now of very great use in keeping out the water from the lowland when the Ganges is in flood. In the great flood of 1874 the water very nearly topped at in several places, and it was with difficulty saved from destruction.

(4). The Khurdábád Sarai, at the back of the Khushru Bagh, is an old Musalmán resting place of some interest, but of which very little is known. The main road from the city to Cawnpore runs right through it.

A. COTTERELL TUPP.

BAREILLY CITY.

BAREILLY.

A CITY IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. *Position, area, &c.*—In $28^{\circ} 22' 9''$ north latitude, and $79^{\circ} 26' 38''$ east longitude, covering with its suburbs an area of 1,280 square acres, with 22,834 houses, a population of 102,982 souls, and a municipal revenue of £6,602, is the first city of the Rohilkhand division and the fifth of the North-Western Provinces. It is situated on the left bank of the river Rámganga, about 96 miles from its confluence with the Ganges. Bareilly is about 550 feet above the sea level.

2. *Approaches.*—As the Rámganga is only navigable for small boats, Bareilly is only approachable by land; but it has good metalled roads diverging from it in several directions. The Fatehgarh road approaches it from the south-east, entering by the sadr bazar: the Moradabad road comes in from the north-west, at the north-west corner of the city; the Budaun road enters from the south-west near the church, crossing the Rámganga by a bridge five miles from Bareilly; the Naini Tal and Kumaun road gives access from the north, entering through the city; the Pilibhit road from the north-east entering near the same place; and the Chandausi road from the west crossing the Rámganga four miles out of the station, and entering near the Budaun road. Bareilly is also approached on both sides by railway, the main line of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway passing just to the south of the station, leading from Lucknow and Sháhjahánpur on the east, and from Aligarh and Moradabad on the west.

3. *Walls and fortification.*—Bareilly is not regularly fortified in any way, nor is it surrounded with walls; the public buildings, barracks, railway station, &c., are not fortified; but there is a fort to the west of the artillery barracks in cantonments which is now a place of considerable strength, and which, it is believed, it is intended to render stronger and to make really valuable as a place of refuge and a defence for the station.

4. *Site.*—The city, civil station, and cantonments of Bareilly are all situated on a level plain between the Nakattia river on the east, the Dujora on the south-west, and the Durania on the north-west; the latter only bounds the extreme north-west part of the city, and the Dujora is a mile or

so to the south-west of the boundaries of cantonments, but the Nakattia runs all along the east boundary of cantonments from the native infantry lines in the north to the sadr bazar in the south.

The cantonments are to the south, the civil station in the centre, and the city to the north ; and starting from the south, the sadr or regimental bazar is first reached, then the church and burial ground ; and after this in a line the railway station and the lines of the artillery, European infantry, and native cavalry in that order from west to east; north of the native cavalry are the native infantry lines, and almost in a line to the west of them the racecourse, public gardens, district offices, central prison, and police lines, going from east to west. North of the central prison is the Rámpur Nawáb's house, and north-east of that the lunatic asylum ; beyond these two latter is the native city, stretching for $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile north-west to the Durania, and three miles from east to west from the Durania to the village of Jagatpur.

The old fort is to the south-west of the artillery lines, and the railway station is to the west of that again and south-west of the public offices.

The whole site is a level plain with very slight exceptions ; a few small ravines run up from the Nakattia, but they are mostly out of cantonments. There is some broken ground to the west of the artillery lines, and beyond that and on the other side of the railway the ground is low and swampy.

5. *Houses.*—Bareilly is a city of comparatively modern origin, having been founded about 1540, and for a long time it was an outpost of the Mughal empire on its extreme north-east frontier, so that it was regarded more as a military station than a city to live and settle down in. There are consequently but few houses of any architectural pretensions, and the few there are have been built quite recently by merchants, bankers, pleaders, and other wealthy persons.

Of the 22,800 houses in the city 15,900 are built of mud, and only 6,800 of masonry : most of the houses are tiled, or with flat timber roofs covered with stones or bricks and cement. Some of the new bazars, particularly Inglisganj, are well built and clean, and the sanitation and drainage of the city has been much improved of late years.

6. *Foundation and early history.*—The city of Bareilly is believed to have been founded about 1537 by Bas Deo and Barel Deo, but nothing accurate is known about its origin. The Katheriyas of Rohilkhand had been carrying on a constant warfare with the Musalmán governors of Sambhal and Aonla during the 14th and 15th centuries, and they, no doubt, found it necessary to establish a strong outpost further east than their then frontier : troops were permanently located there, and in this way Bareilly grew into importance, for

in 1628 Ali Kuli Khan was appointed governor of it, and it was then a large town. In 1657 Rájá Makrand Rai, a Hindu governor, founded the new city of Bareilly, cut down the forest to the west of the old one, and expelled all the Katheriyas from the city.

7. *Hindu and Musalmán times.*—From 1660 to 1707 there was a regular succession of imperial governors at Bareilly; in that year the Emperor Alamgir died and the Hindus threw off the Musalmán yoke; they refused to pay tribute and continued fighting among themselves (the Musalmán government being too weak to reduce them) till the Rohilla Patháns rose into power under Ali Muhammad Khan. The governors of Bareilly and Moradabad attacked him, but he defeated them, and was then appointed by the Emperor governor of all eastern Rohilkhand. He rebelled and was subdued, and in 1750 he was again sent to Bareilly as governor, but died at once in 1751. Hafiz Rahmat Khan succeeded him and governed Bareilly till his death in 1774, having extended the Rohilla power greatly till he was finally conquered by the Nawáb of Oudh with the help of the English. The Nawáb Saadat Ali ruled on the part of the Vazir of Oudh at Bareilly till 1776, when he was removed and his father-in-law, Surat Singh, appointed.

8. *English rule.*—Rohilkhand was ceded by the Vazir to the English on the 10th November, 1801, and Bareilly passed with it into our hands. It was made the headquarters of the Rohilkhand commissionership and of the Bareilly judgeship, which also comprises the west half of Budaun.

In 1816 the people of Bareilly rose in rebellion under Muftí Muhammad Evaz on account of discontent about the land tax, but they were defeated and banished. There were slight *emeutés* at Bareilly in 1837 and 1842.

In 1857 the troops mutinied on the 31st May. Nearly all the European officers escaped to Naini Tál, and Khán Bahádur Khan, Hafiz Rahmat's grandson, was appointed governor. He made several expeditions against Naini Tál, but was always defeated.

The Nawáb of Fatehgarh, the Nana, Firoz Shah, and other rebels took refuge in Bareilly, till on the 5th May, 1858, the English army arrived there; the city was taken and all the rebels driven into Oudh on the 7th.

9. *Population and castes.*—In the census of 1872 the total population of the city and station of Bareilly was found to be 102,982; this was composed as follows:—

Hindús	...	Males	32,498
...	{	Females	26,543
				Total	59,036

Musalmáns	... {	Males	22,474
		Females	20,989
Others	... {	Males	181
			302
		Total	483

Total males, 55,140.

Total females, 47,834.

No return of castes is given in the census report, but the occupations of all males above 15 years of age are noted, and those which exceeded 50 in number are as follows :—

Beggars	...	703	Grain parchers	...	249	Parohits (family priests).	695
Blanket weavers	...	220	Greengrocers	...	125	Schoolmasters	67
Blacksmiths	...	360	Grocers	...	262	Servants	13,978
Bricklayers	...	531	Innkeepers	...	95	Shopkeepers	2,349
Butchers	...	487	Labourers	...	3,736	Shoemakers and sellers,	820
Carpenters	...	465	Lac workers and sellers,	108		Singers and musicians,	154
Cart drivers	...	101	Landowners	...	972	Sweepers	467
Cooks	...	65	Merchants	...	450	Tailors	576
Confectioners	...	336	Ditto, cloth	...	367	Tinmen and tinkers	65
Cotton cleaners	...	270	Milk and butter sellers,	102		Tobacco sellers	131
Cultivators	...	2,466	Money-changers	...	107	Unspecified	308
Doctors	...	88	Money-lenders	...	60	Washermen	376
Dyers	...	250	Oil-makers	...	209	Water-carriers	626
Fishmongers	...	225	Pandits	...	476	Weavers	1,306
Flower sellers	...	238	Pan-sellers	...	103	Wire-drawers	343
Goldsmiths	...	526	Pedlars	...	167		
Grain dealers	...	359	Potters	...	482		

As regards the proportions of the sexes and religions, there are 55 males to 48 females, and 137 Hindus to every 100 Musalmáns.

In the census of 1872 the number of houses and enclosures was as follows :—

Enclosures	... 14,818	{ Hindu	7,533
			Musalmán	7,273
		Christian, &c.	12
Houses	... 22,834	{ Hindu	12,937
			Musalmán	9,856
			Christian, &c.	41
Masonry houses	... 6,865	{ Hindu	4,442
			Musalmán	2,415
			Christian, &c.	8
Mud houses	... 15,969	{ Hindu	8,495
			Musalmán	7,441
			Christian, &c.	83

The population was divided as regards nationality, ages, occupation, and education as follows :—

NATIONALITY		Hindus.		Musalmáns.		Christian, &c.		Total.	
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Hindustání	...	32,493	26,543	22,474	20,989	177	300	55,144	47,832

	Bengálí
	Panjabí
Pársí	4	2	4	2
	Total	...	32,493	26,543	22,474	20,989	181	302	55,144
									47,834
AGE.	Up to 15 years	...	10,814	8,946	7,755	7,107	59	168	18,128
	15 to 20 "	...	3,767	3,154	2,685	2,637	38	70	6,490
	20 to 30 "	...	7,395	5,440	4,691	4,242	48	34	12,184
	30 to 40 "	...	5,233	3,642	3,196	2,688	23	14	8,442
	40 to 50 "	...	3,141	2,674	2,165	2,134	6	7	5,312
	50 to 60 "	...	1,801	1,707	1,310	1,308	3	4	3,114
	Above 60 "	...	852	980	672	873	4	5	1,523
OCCUPATION	Total	...	32,493	26,543	22,474	20,989	181	302	55,144
									47,834
EDUCATION	Landowners	...	519	476	525	641	1	...	1,045
	Agriculturists	...	2,541	1,157	508	173	3,049
	Non-agriculturists	...	29,433	24,910	21,441	20,175	180	302	51,054
	Total	...	32,493	26,543	22,474	20,989	181	302	55,144
									47,834
12 years of age	...	497	...	236	...	3	...	736	...
	12 to 20 "	...	773	...	275	...	10	1	1,085
	Above 20 "	...	3,281	...	1,069	1	24	...	4,374
	Total educated	...	4,548	...	1,580	1	37	1	6,165
									2

10. *Trade and manufactures.*—The chief trade of Bareilly is in cotton, grain, and sugar, but it is not a mart of the first importance. The village bazars collect the cotton and grain of the surrounding country, and then it is brought into Bareilly and Pilibhit for sale to the larger dealers.

The chief manufacture of Bareilly is furniture and upholstery of all kinds: a large trade in this has gradually grown up, and articles of furniture are now manufactured both better and cheaper there than elsewhere in Northern India.

11. *Buildings, &c.*—Bareilly has but few remarkable buildings, either ancient or modern ; the chief are—

(1.)—The old fort in the old city of Bareilly, founded by Barel Deo and Bas Deo in 1537 ; only the remains are now visible.

(2.)—The Mirza Masjid (mosque) and the Mirza Bagh (garden) near Madhobári, built by Mirza Ain-ul-Mulk about 1600.

(3.)—The Jamá Masjid, built by Makrand Rai in 1657.

(4.)—The large fort on the Dioranian river, built also by Makrand Rai about the same time.

(5.)—The Nawáb of Rámpur's palace near the city, used by him when he visits Bareilly, and at other times lent for the accommodation of high European officials.

A. COTTERELL TUPP.

30-6-'77.

BENARES CITY.

BENARES.

A CITY IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. *Position, area, &c.*—In $25^{\circ} 18' 31''$ north latitude, and $83^{\circ} 3' 5''$ east longitude, covering with its suburbs an area of 3,141 square acres, with 37,574 houses, a population of 175,188 souls, and a municipal revenue of £16,069 ; is the first city of the Benares division, and the first of the North-Western Provinces. It is situated on the left bank of the river Ganges, about 120 miles below its junction with the Jumna. Benares is 253 feet above the sea level.

2. *Approaches.*—Benares, being on the river Ganges, can be approached by water as well as by land, and the river here is navigable by steamers and by large vessels. There is a bridge of boats across it from the East Indian Railway station at Rájghat, and also a steam ferry. The Benares branch of the East Indian Railway, which leaves the main line at Mogal Sarai, ends on the right bank of the Ganges opposite to Rájghat, and on the opposite side of the river to the city. Benares is also the terminus of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, which, coming from Lucknow and Jaunpur, passes right through the station of Benares, and ends at Rájghat opposite the station of the East Indian Railway. By road Benares has several approaches : the Grand Trunk Road from Calcutta to Delhi runs right through it, crossing the Ganges north of the city at Rájghát, and then turning west ; the Jaunpur road comes from the north-west and enters the station by a bridge over the Barna : the Chunár road runs along the right bank of the Ganges through Rámnagar, and comes out opposite the centre of the city ; and the Gházipur road comes in from the north, joining the Jaunpur road just beyond the Barna, and crossing it by the same bridge.

3. *Walls and fortification.*—Benares is not fortified in any way, nor are there any walls round it. A fort was erected at Rájghát during the mutiny, but this is not maintained now. It is situated on an eminence fifty feet above the plain and extending to the junction of the Barna and Ganges. It is the key of Benares and the surrounding country, and is a very strong position, so that it is to be lamented that it has been abandoned on the ground of alleged unhealthiness.

4. *Site.*—Benares is situated to the west of the Ganges, as the river here flows nearly north and south, and it is in an angle between the Ganges and the river Barna, which flows into the Ganges just north of Rájghát. The river Barná flows between the civil station and the cantonments, and some distance north of the city; and the district offices, jails, and other public buildings are on the further side of the Barna from the city.

Starting from the south along the Ganges the city is first met with, extending about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles along the left bank: it is bounded on the south by the Assi nálá, and extends rather more than a mile westwards from the river. West of the southern part of the city is Sigrah with its missionary institutions, and north of this the general parade ground and the Sikrol cantonment, containing the native infantry lines on the west, the European infantry in the centre, and the artillery on the east. The church, post and telegraph offices, and judge's court are on the south side of the Barna, the remainder of the public offices and the civil station are across the Barna and north of the Sikrol cantonments. North again of the civil station are the Pandipur cantonments, formerly occupied by English cavalry, but now vacant.

The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway cuts the Jaunpur road about $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile above the Barna, and crossing that stream over a bridge, passes between the native infantry and European lines across the parade ground, and then takes a sweep to the north to avoid the city, following the course of the Barna pretty closely till it reaches Rájghát. The site of the city itself is level, except where it slopes down to the Ganges on the eastern side, but the civil station and cantonments are rendered raviny and undulating by the Barna, which has innumerable ravines and small nálás running into it. It is only bridged at Chaukaghát, near the blind asylum and opposite to the collector's office. The Benares Government College is north-west of the city, and between it and the civil station. The ancient remains of Bahariya Kund and Lát Bhairon are north of the city, between it and the Barna. All along the Ganges there is a high cliff at least 100 feet high, and the gháts descend from this to the bed of the stream: the buildings on the edge of the cliff rise to a height of 50 or 60 feet above it, and are five and six stories high.

5. *Houses.*—Benares, from its great antiquity, possesses many fine houses substantially built and elaborately decorated, but the streets are narrow and dirty, and the city generally is disappointing from every point of view except from the river. Thence the fine gháts or landing places, the numerous temples and shrines, and the various public buildings—like Jai Singh's observatory—present an imposing line of edifices of every age and of every kind of

architecture. Rájá Chait Singh's palace, the observatory, Aurangzeb's mosque, the Bisheshwar temple, and the Kál kúp, or well of fate, are all close to the river.

Most of the houses in the city are three or four stories high, as ground is very valuable : a few are built of stone (brought from Mirzapur), but most of brick or of mud. There are 16,023 masonry houses and 21,551 mud houses ; so even here the mud houses predominate. The houses are generally tiled or roofed with timber, covered with plaster and stone slabs, but some are only thatched. There are 1,454 Hindu temples and 272 Musalmán mosques in Benares.

6. *Foundation and early history.*—Benares is a place of great antiquity, and is without doubt one of the primitive cities found by the Aryans when they first spread over Northern India. Allusions to it in Sanskrit literature are very common, and the earliest mention of it is when Sakhya Muni, the last Buddha, travelled to it from Gaya, and dwelt at Sárñath in the 6th century B.C.

Benares is the most sacred city in India, and pilgrimages are still made to it by Hindús of every caste and of all parts of India. Even in the 6th century B.C. Benares was a place of great importance, and it was for this reason that Gautama Buddha wished to commence his career from here. Since then the city has never decayed, and has maintained its reputation and prosperity for at least 25 centuries. Benares was a chief city of the Hindu faith before Buddha arose ; it was the headquarters of Buddhism from about 500 B.C. to 300 A.D., and then reverted to Brahmanism, not to change again as yet. In Benares Kapila enunciated the Sankhya doctrines, Gautama founded the Nyaya school, and Panini published his famous Sanskrit grammar. It has always been the headquarters of Sanskrit literature.

7. *Hindu and Musalmán times.*—Sankara Acharya, the great opponent of Buddhism and champion of the Shaivite doctrine of Hindúism, lived in Benares in the 7th century A.D., and on the downfall of Buddhism the Shaivite Hindús appear to have rebuilt a considerable portion of the city, shifting its site from the northern to the southern bank of the Baraṇa. The present city is modern, most of the buildings not dating further back than Akbar's time. Benares was first taken from the Hindús by Muhammad Gauri in 1194, and it remained under the Musalmán empire for 600 years. In 1740 Rájá Balwant Singh, who had been a mere landholder in Gangapur, took a prominent part in affairs, joined the Emperor Shah Alam and the Vazir of Oudh in their invasion of Bengal in 1763, and after they had been defeated at Buxár by the English, joined the English camp with the emperor. The suzerainty of Balwant Singh's estates was transferred to the English in 1764, but re-transferred

to the Vazir of Oudh in 1765 by the Court of Directors. Balwant Singh remained in possession and governed Benares till his death in 1770, when the English compelled the Vazir to acknowledge his son Chait Singh as his successor. In 1775 Benares was ceded to the English by the Nawáb Vazir of Oudh.

8. *English rule.*—From the time of the cession the English continued to govern their new acquisitions from Benares, and a Resident was appointed there. In 1778-80 Chait Singh was compelled to pay a tribute of five lakhs extra, and on his refusing to do this in 1781 he was arrested by Warren Hastings in his own house. He was rescued by his troops and an *émeute* ensued, in which Hastings had to flee to Chunár, till after receiving some reinforcements he expelled Chait Singh in September of that year, and appointed his nephew Mahipnarain to succeed him in the estates : but the criminal administration was taken from him, and he was compelled to pay a tribute of 40 lakhs. Mahipnarain died in 1795, and was succeeded by his son Uditnarain, who died in 1835, when his nephew, the present Maharája Ishri Parshad Narain, succeeded. The Nawáb Vazir of Oudh, Vazir Ali, was deposed by the English and compelled to live at Benares in 1798, and in 1799 he attacked Mr. Cherry, the Resident, and murdered him and two other officers ; the rest defended themselves till some cavalry arrived, and Vazir Ali was captured and deported to Calcutta. Benares was afterwards made the headquarters of a commissionership, comprising the districts of Gorakhpur, Basti, Gházipur, Azamgarh, Mirzapur, and Benares, and of a civil and sessions judge, who also has jurisdiction over Jaunpur.

In the mutiny of 1857 Benares was the seat of a serious outbreak : the 37th Native Infantry became mutinous on receipt of the news from Meerut on 15th May. On the 1st June they were ordered to be disarmed, and were fired on when they resisted ; the Sikhs and irregular cavalry joined them, and were also fired on and dispersed.

The mint was then fortified, and all the civil officers remained in it. European troops kept passing through Benares, and kept the city quiet till the erection of the fort at Rájghát on the 18th July secured tranquillity.

9. *Population and castes.*—In the census of 1872 the total population of the city and station of Benares was found to be 175,188. This was composed as follows :—

Hindús	... { Males	68,612
	} Females	64,937
				Total	133,549

Musalmáns	... {	Males	21,005
		Females	20,369
Others	... {	Total	41,374
		Males	146
	... {	Females	119
		Total	285

Total males, 89,763; total females, 85,425

No return of castes is given in the census report, but the occupations of all males above 15 years of age are noted, and those which exceeded 50 in number are as follows:—

Alms-takers	... 184	Flour dealers	... 946	Ornament sellers a n'd
Attorneys	... 72	Fruit sellers	... 291	manufacturers ... 149
Bakers	... 234	Goldsmiths	... 1,067	Painters and varnishers, 84
Bangle sellers (glass)	... 170	Gold-lace makers a n d		Palki-bearers ... 95
Bankers	... 332	wire-drawers	... 164	Pandits ... 96
Barbers	... 979	Gold-thread embroi-		Pann-sellers ... 349
Beggars	... 3,490	derers	... 313	Pedlars ... 502
Blanket-weavers	... 76	Grain dealers	... 676	Pensioners ... 200
Blacksmiths	... 1,052	Grain parchers and sell-		Picture painters and
Boatmen	... 511	ers.	... 330	plan drawers ... 123
Box or pitarah makers	... 182	Grindstone-makers	... 70	Porters (load carriers) 292
Braziers	... 105	Greengrocers	... 295	Potters ... 537
Bricklayers	... 111	Herdsmen	... 119	Priests, temple or ghát, 2,809
Brokers	... 887	Jewellers (ring engrav-		Porohits (family priests) 1,273
Butchers	... 252	ers and dealers in pre-		Saddlers ... 237
Calico-printers	... 218	cious stones)	... 169	Servants 14,309
Callers to prayers at		Kimkhab-makers (cloth		Shopkeepers 1,212
mosques	... 88	of gold)	... 245	Shoemakers and sellers, 373
Carpenters	... 411	Labourers	... 9,859	Singers and musicians 215
Carpet-makers	... 70	Lac workers and sellers,	508	Silk-weavers 1,185
Cart-drivers	... 210	Landowners	... 533	Stonemasons ... 324
Chair and basket makers,	160	Leaf-plate makers	... 351	Sugar sellers and makers, 97
Coppersmiths	... 259	Lime-sellers	... 116	Sweetmeat sellers ... 583
Cotton-cleaners	... 212	Merchants	... 194	Tailors ... 806
Cultivators	... 534	Ditto cloth	... 698	Tanners ... 157
Doctors	... 192	Ditto iron	... 92	Tobacco sellers ... 306
Druggists	... 104	Milkmen	... 514	Turners ... 54
Drummers	... 114	Money-changers	... 377	Washermen ... 406
Dyers	... 117	Money-lenders	... 444	Water carriers ... 122
Embroiderers	... 71	Necklace makers (or		Weavers ... 3,670
Farriers	... 61	patwas)	... 198	Wine sellers ... 544
Flower-sellers	... 86	Oil-makers	... 270	Wire-drawers ... 976
				Wood-sellers ... 207

As regards the proportions of the sexes and religions, there are 90 males to 85 females, and 306 Hindús to every 100 Musalmáns.

In the census of 1872 the number of houses and enclosures was as follows :—

		Hindú	...	17,415
Enclosures, 23,288	...	Musalmán	...	5,839
		Christian, &c.	...	34
		Hindú	...	29,152
Houses, 37,574	...	Musalmán	...	8,380
		Christian, &c.	...	42
		Hindú	...	13,879
Masonry houses, 16,023	...	Musalmán	...	2,139
		Christian, &c.	...	5
		Hindú	...	15,273
Mud houses, 21,551	...	Musalmán	...	6,241
		Christian, &c.	...	37

The population was divided as regards nationality, ages, occupation, and education as follows :—

		HINDÚS.		MUSALMÁNS.		CHRISTIANS, &c.		TOTAL.	
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
NATIONALITY.	Hindusánis	59,937	55,887	20,934	20,366	132	119	8,003	76,372
	Europeana	14	...	14	..
	Dukhnás	3,741	3,248	2	2	3,743	3,250
	Panjábís	2,088	2,101	68	2,156	2,101
	Gujáritis	83	72	83	72
	Bengális	2,252	3,088	1	1	2,253	3,089
	Tilangis	364	946	364	946
AGE.	Marwáris	147	195	147	195
	Total	68,612	64,937	21,005	20,369	146	119	89,763	85,425
	Up to 15 years	19,830	17,379	7,316	7,165	79	48	27,225	24,592
	15 to 20 "	7,330	7,550	2,192	2,463	15	25	9,337	10,038
	20 to 30 "	14,116	13,840	4,100	4,349	11	13	18,227	18,202
	30 to 40 "	11,756	10,492	3,349	2,760	19	15	15,124	13,267
	40 to 50 "	8,177	7,634	2,083	1,913	12	9	10,272	9,556
OCCUPATION.	50 to 60 "	4,595	4,739	1,233	1,012	5	7	5,833	5,758
	Above 60 "	2,808	3,303	732	707	5	2	3,546	4,012
	Total	68,612	64,937	21,005	20,369	146	119	89,763	85,425
	Landowners	471	319	86	71	557	390
	Agriculturists	529	374	5	8	584	382
	Non-agriculturists	67,612	64,244	20,914	20,290	146	119	88,572	84,653
	Total	68,612	64,937	21,005	20,319	146	119	89,763	85,425
EDUCATION.	12 years of age	981	1	119	...	44	...	1,144	1
	12 to 20	2,357	...	159	...	17	...	2,533	...
	Above 20	11,080	...	909	...	20	...	12,009	...
	Total educated	14,418	1	1,187	...	81	...	15,686	...

10. *Trade and manufactures.*—Benares is famous for its manufacture of handsome shawls and cloths embroidered with gold and silver, for jewellery, and for engraved brass vessels of various kinds. These latter are made by engraving on brass with a rough tool in apparently the rudest way, but the result is always pleasing, and often admirable. The trade of Benares is chiefly derived from the north, the districts across the Ghogra, *viz.*, Gorakhpur and Basti, and those of Jaunpur and Benares, which all send their products through Benares to Calcutta and the east.

11. *Buildings, &c.*—The chief are—(1) the temple at Durga Knnd, at the south extremity of the city. Here sacrifices are performed to Durga, and it is a great haunt of the sacred monkeys.

(2) The Dasasamedh Ghát is one of the five sacred places of pilgrimage in Benares. Brahma is said to have performed the 10-horse sacrifice here.

(3). Rájá Jai Singh's observatory, at the Mán-Mandil ghát, is on the banks of the river, and is a substantial building rising high above the ghát. There is a court below, whence a staircase ascends to the observatory. It was erected in 1693 by Rájá Jai Singh of Amber, who reformed the calendar for the Emperor Muhammad Shah. In the observatory are a mural quadrant 11 feet high and 9 feet $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch broad, a double mural quadrant, an equinoctial stone, and a Yantrasamrát (or prince of instruments), 36 feet long and $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches broad, for ascertaining declinations, right ascensions, &c.

(4) Near the Mán-Mandil Ghát is the Nipáli temple, strikingly picturesque, and very unlike any of the other Hindú shrines.

(5) The burning ghát, where the bodies of Hindús are burnt, is a little above the observatory; it is a narrow confined place, with several pairs of short stone slabs set on end in honour of widows who have committed *sati*.

(6) The well of Manibarnika, which is supposed to wash away all sin. Stone steps on each of the four sides lead down to the water, and these are crowded with worshippers who come to pour the water over themselves. It is supposed to be the perspiration of Vishnu, but is shallow and fetid.

(7) The Panchganga Ghát, near the minarets, is another of the five sacred places of pilgrimage, and is supposed to be the meeting place of five rivers, of which, however, only the Ganges is visible.

(8) Aurangzeb's mosque is near the river, above the Mán-Mandil Ghát; it is on the very edge of a steep cliff, and enormous stone breastworks extend far down the banks. The outer enclosure is entered from the north, and the mosque is on the south side. It is only remarkable for its two minarets, 147

feet high and $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet diameter at the base : they are 15 inches out of the perpendicular.

(9) The temple of Bhaironáth, near the public gardens, is one of the most famous. Bhairo is supposed to be the divine protector and guardian of Benares, and his great stone club, 4 feet in height, is deposited in the neighbouring temple of Dandpán.

(10) The Bisheshwar or golden temple is dedicated to Shiva, and is close to the observatory. The god's symbol is a plain lingam of stone. Bisheshwar is the reigning deity of Benares, and Bhairo is only his minister. The temple is in a covered enclosure through which the spire projects. At each corner is a dome, and at one a temple sacred to Shiva. The temple was erected by Ahalya Bai, the Marhatta Princess of Indor.

(11) The Buddhist remains at Sarnáth, four miles from Benares, are worthy of note, as having been the residence of Sankhya Muni, the last Buddha, and some of them probably date from 500 B.C. They consist of two towers half a mile apart, and of the walls and foundations of other buildings. There are also grooved and carved bricks, mutilated statues, and a large stone figure, probably of Buddha. The larger tower is 93 feet in diameter at base and 110 feet high ; 43 feet of this is stone, and the rest brick. This is called the Dhámek tower. The other, 2,500 feet further south, is called Chaukandi or Lori-ki-kudáu (Lori's leap). There is a mound of solid brickwork 74 feet high, and on the top of this an octagonal building 23 feet 8 inches high, erected to commemorate the Emperor Humayun's visit in 1531.

(12) The Government college, near the city, was built in 1853 at a cost of £12,690 ; it is a gothic structure of the perpendicular style, faced with Chunár free-stone. The centre tower is 75 feet high, the nave $60' \times 30' \times 32'$, and the transept $40' \times 20' \times 32$; at each corner are smaller towers connected by open arcades.

(13) A short distance from the road leading to the Rájghát fort are some remains consisting of two cloisters sustained by a quadruple colonnade. The smaller is 66 feet long and the larger 84 feet ; the breadth of both is 25 feet. There are 72 stone pillars standing ; those in the smaller cloister are square and 9 feet high, and those in the larger round and 10 feet high : the latter are elaborately carved.

(14) North of these cloisters is the pillar called Lát Bhairo, or the pillar of Bhairo ; it is a fragment, only a few feet long, of a pillar which was probably 40 feet long, and may have been one of the Asoka pillars. The temple in which it stood was destroyed by Aurangzeb.

(15) Further up the Rájghát road, towards the iron bridge, are the remains of Bakariya Kund ; these consist of a large tank, round which the remains of former massive buildings are to be seen. There is a small temple on the southern bank, and a terrace walled round by a stone breastwork on which stand four profusely carved columns.

A. COTTERELL TUPP.

29-6-'77.

C A W N P O R E C I T Y.

CAWNPORE

A CITY IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. *Position, area, &c.*—In $26^{\circ} 28' 15''$ north latitude, and $80^{\circ} 23' 45''$ east longitude, covering with its suburbs an area of 6,079 square acres, with 33,391 houses, a population of 122,770 souls, and a municipal revenue of £8,873; is the second city of the Allahabad division, and the fourth of the North-Western Provinces. It is situated on the right bank of the river Ganges, about 130 miles above its junction with the Jumna at Allahabad.

It is about 500 feet above the sea level, and is 628 miles from Calcutta and 266 from Delhi.

2. *Approaches.*—Cawnpore being situated on the Ganges may be approached by water either from the east or the west, and the navigation on the river is considerable. The Ganges Canal, which passes just south of the city, is also navigable and carries a large amount of traffic in country boats.

Besides these, two railways and three main roads pass through the station. The East Indian Railway from Allahabad to Delhi passes about a mile west of the city, and the Lucknow branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway crosses the Ganges by a girder bridge, and passes between the city and cantonments, joining the East Indian Railway a little west of the Cawnpore station.

The Grand Trunk Road from Calcutta to Delhi passes right through the cantonments, city, and civil station, and the roads from Kálpi to the south-west and Hamírpur to the south unite with the Grand Trunk Road at Cawnpore. There is also the road north to Unao and Lucknow which crosses the Ganges on the new railway bridge.

3. *Walls and fortification.*—There are no walls or fortifications in Cawnpore, nor are any of the European barracks or public buildings fortified.

4. *Site.*—The cantonments and civil station are situated along the right bank of the Ganges, the former being to the east. The city is a little south-west or inland from the civil station, and also extends almost between it and the cantonments. Starting from the east or Allahabad side the racecourse is first reached. West of this are the native cavalry lines, and then the brigade parade ground, north-east of which are the European infantry barracks, and between these and the river the Memorial Church, the Wheeler Club, the artillery lines, and the various military offices. North of the parade ground is the sadr bazar,

and then the city, and between this and the river are the Memorial Gardens with the famous Well. West again of this are the district offices, Bank of Bengal, Christ Church, the theatre, &c., and, on the bank of the river, the jail and police lines. Three miles west of these are the model farm, Nawábganj and old Cawnpore, which are separated from the present station by villages and cultivated land.

All the ground occupied by the city, cantonments, and civil station is a level plain, except where ravines from the Ganges run up into it, and with the exception of the portion quite on the edge of the river, which is undulating and broken up into detached hillocks and plateaux.

The Ganges Canal runs right through the centre of the station between the city and cantonments, and is crossed by several bridges. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway crosses the various roads by level crossings, and the East Indian Railway, being beyond the Grand Trunk Road, crosses none of the city or station roads, but is carried over the Ganges Canal by a small bridge.

The Grand Trunk Road also crosses the Ganges Canal by a bridge a little below the railway bridge. From the point where the East Indian Railway crosses the Ganges Canal, it turns sharply to the west, and leaves the city and most of the civil station to the north ; its direction previously to this bend is north-west, and the cantonments are to the north-east of it.

5. *Houses.*—The city is of such modern origin that there are none of the old palaces or expensive masonry houses which are found in Agra, Benares, and other old cities. The few good masonry houses which exist have been built within the last fifty years by bankers, merchants, pleaders, &c., and there are a few very large and substantial structures among these, but the majority of the houses are plain brick edifices, with no pretensions to elegance or beauty. More than half of all the houses are merely built of mud and thatched or tiled on rough timber ; 17,400 being of this description against 15,900 masonry ones.

A great deal has been done of late years for the sanitation and drainage of the city and station, and it is now as well cared for in these respects as any place in the North-Western Provinces.

6. *Foundation and early history.*—Cawnpore is utterly unknown in earlier history, almost up to the cession of the province to the English. It first became of note in 1777, when it was chosen as the seat of the advanced British garrison. The force was posted here under the treaty made by the majority of Warren Hastings' Council with the successor of the Nawáb Shujá-ud-daulah. Hastings had lent the latter a brigade of troops, and was severely censured for it ; but his censors did nearly the same thing, as they supplied him with troops,

levied a new contribution in money, and forced him to cede the Benares province. Cawnpore was then selected as the frontier headquarters of the British army. It is well situated for the purpose, and was on the border line between our territory and the then native state of Oudh.

From the location of a large body of troops at Cawnpore, it soon grew into a good sized town and thriving mart, and has now developed into a commercial city of the first importance.

7. *Hindu and Musalmán times.*—The city of Cawnpore first arose when the Nawáb of Oudh, Shuja-ud-daulah, having been defeated by the English at Buxar in October, 1764, and at Kora in May, 1765, concluded a treaty allowing English troops to be established at two places in his dominions, Cawnpore and Fatehgarh. But the Cawnpore troops were at first stationed at Bilgram, and it was not till 1778 that they permanently occupied Cawnpore. Cawnpore was finally ceded to the British by the treaty of November, 1801, and has remained in our possession ever since, except for a few weeks during the mutiny of 1857.

8. *English rule.*—Cawnpore was formed into a district in 1801, and was attached afterwards to the Allahabad commissionership; it was also made the seat of a civil and sessions judge. During the mutiny of 1857 the struggle with the rebels lasted from May to December of that year, but we only lost possession of the station for a few days. On the 15th May the news of the Meerut outbreak was received; on the 26th the Náná was placed in charge of the treasury, and on the 30th the entrenchment of the European barracks commenced.

On the 6th June the native troops mutinied and took the treasury, broke open the jail, and burnt the public offices. The Náná began his attack on the entrenchments on the 7th; they were only surrounded by a mud parapet five feet high. The position having become untenable, after three weeks cannonading the garrison capitulated and marched out. On the 27th they embarked in boats on the Ganges for Allahabad, but were fired on and all destroyed or captured except one boatload. Those captured were murdered in the Saváda Kothi near the East Indian Railway.

On the 16th July Havelock took Cawnpore by storm, and on the 20th General Neill arrived with 400 more Europeans. Havelock advanced into Oudh, but was driven back three times, and retreated into Cawnpore at last on August 10th.

General Outram arrived at Cawnpore on 19th August and marched on to relieve Lucknow, which was done on the 25th. Lord Clyde's column reached Cawnpore on the 19th October, and also marched on to Lucknow; and on the 26th Colonel Greathed's avenging column from Delhi did the same. On the 26th November the Gwalior mutineers approached Cawnpore, and General Windham

marched out to attack them, and defeated them ; but they were largely reinforced by Oudh rebels and wrested the city from us on the 27th ; they, however, only held it till the evening of the 28th, when Lord Clyde marched in and drove them out, utterly defeating them again next day outside the city and taking all their guns.

9. *Population and castes.*--In the census of 1872 the total population of the city and station of Cawnpore was found to be 122,770. This was composed as follows :—

Hindús	{ Males	50,719	
	{ Females	39,863	
				Total	...	<u>90,582</u>	
Musalmáns...	{ Males	16,801	
	{ Females	15,093	
				Total	...	<u>31,894</u>	
Others	{ Males	143	
	{ Females	157	
				Total	...	<u>294</u>	
	Total males	...	67,663		Total females	...	55,107

No return of castes is given in the census report, but the occupations of all males above 15 years of age are noted, and those which exceeded 50 in number are as follows :—

Alms-takers	...	134	Flour dealers	...	1,064	Money-changers	...	414
Barbers	...	756	Fruit sellers	...	128	Necklace makers (or patwas)	...	77
Beggars	...	513	Goldsmiths	...	551	Oil-makers	...	420
Bhúsa sellers	...	99	Gold & silver lace sellers,	102		Painters and varnishers,	...	88
Bird-trappers	...	117	Grain dealers	...	1,210	Pan sellers	...	253
Blanket sellers	...	79	Grain-parchers	...	342	Pedlars	...	163
Blacksmiths	...	555	Greengrocers	...	545	Petty dealers	...	143
Boatmen	...	151	Grocers	...	355	Polishers, metal	...	124
Braziers	...	202	Hukka-makers	...	57	Potters	...	294
Bricklayers	...	146	House proprietors	...	149	Rope and string makers,	...	173
Brokers	...	414	Indigo-planters	...	59	Servants	...	15,358
Butchers	...	471	Innkeepers	...	121	Shoemakers and sellers,	...	438
Carpenters	...	555	Labourers	...	11,120	Singers and musicians	...	104
Confectioners	...	541	Lac workers and sellers,	134	Stocking knitters	...	1,059	
Contractors	...	84	Landowners	...	193	Stool sellers	...	153
Cotton-cleaners	...	104	Leather sellers	...	163	Tailors	...	1,120
Cultivators	...	822	Livery stable keepers	...	878	Tobacco sellers	...	284
Doctors	...	153	Lime-burners	...	331	Washermen	...	532
Drummers	...	105	Mat sellers	...	158	Weavers	...	1,030
Dyers	...	225	Merchants	...	344	Weighmen	...	244
Farriers	...	56	Ditto, cloth	...	720	Wood sellers	...	280
Firework-makers	...	75	Ditto, iron	...	65			
Fishmongers	...	51	Milk and butter sellers,	446				

As regards the proportions of the sexes and religions there are 68 males to 55 females, and 285 Hindús to every 100 Musalmáns.

In the census of 1872 the number of houses and enclosures was as follows:—

		Hindu	11,337
Enclosures	... 14,642	Musalmán	3,274
		Christian, &c.	31
		Hindu	25,023
Houses	... 33,391	Musalmán	8,283
		Christian, &c.	85
		Hindu	12,047
Masonry houses	... 15,918	Musalmán	3,827
		Christian, &c.	44
		Hindu	12,976
Mud houses	... 17,473	Musalmán	4,456
		Christian, &c.	41

The population was divided as regards nationality, age, occupation, and education as follows:—

NATIONALITY.	Hindús.		Musalmáns.		Christian, &c.		Total.		
			Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.
Hindustánis	... 50,573	39,755	16,799	15,089	108	110	67,480	54,954	
Bengalis	... 143	104	143	104
Madrasis	... 1	2	1	2
Cashmiris	... 2	2	2	2	2
Jews	... 3	4	2	2	4
Europeans	... 3	35	41	35	41	
Total	... 50,719	39,863	16,799	15,089	145	155	67,663	55,107	
AGE.									
Up to 15 years	14,582	12,945	5,108	4,742	51	56	19,741	17,743	
15 to 20 "	5,678	4,978	1,801	1,659	15	29	7,494	6,866	
20 to 30 "	12,446	9,052	3,847	3,432	37	32	16,330	12,516	
30 to 40 "	8,960	5,904	2,776	2,300	20	20	11,756	8,224	
40 to 50 "	5,507	3,783	1,759	1,469	12	11	7,278	5,263	
50 to 60 "	2,438	1,990	960	768	5	4	3,403	2,762	
Above 60 "	1,108	1,211	548	519	5	3	1,661	1,733	
Total	... 50,719	39,863	16,799	15,089	145	155	67,663	55,107	
Occupation.									
Landowners	... 82	33	49	27	131	60	
Agriculturists...	734	426	24	2	758	428	
Non-agriculturists	... 49,903	39,404	16,726	15,060	145	155	66,774	54,619	
Total	... 50,719	39,863	16,799	15,089	145	155	67,663	55,107	

EDUCATION.		<i>Hindús.</i>		<i>Musalmáns.</i>		<i>Christians, &c.</i>		<i>Total.</i>	
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
12 years of age	...	654	4	20	...	8	...	867	4
12 to 20	,,	718	...	192	...	14	...	919	...
Above 20	,,	3,595	...	884	...	43	...	4,522	...
Total	...	4,962	4	1,281	...	65	...	6,308	4

10. *Trade and manufactures.*—The chief trade for which Cawnpore is noted is the manufacture of leather goods, and this trade grows more flourishing year by year.

There are now two cotton mills—the Elgin and Muir,—both successful, and giving employment to many persons: they manufacture yarn thread, cloth and tents, and supply the native weavers. The chief exports from Cawnpore are leather goods, cotton cloths, and tents; it is also a great grain mart, where grain from Bundelkhand, Oudh, and the Agra division is collected and sent off by railway. For some years past its trade has been steadily increasing at the expense of Fatehgarh, Mirzapur, and other towns, but there are signs of a decrease, now that the railway system in Upper India has been fully developed.

11. *Buildings, &c.*—The buildings in Cawnpore are of course all modern, and derive their interest entirely from the events of the mutiny.

(1.)—The Memorial Church, built on the site of General Wheeler's entrenchments in the cantonments. It is of red brick and of considerable size: the style is Romanesque, and the west front is the finest. The red brick walls are relieved by buttresses and copings of fine buff freestone. It has cost about £18,500.

(2.)—The Memorial Gardens and Well, situated nearly on the banks of the river and east of the city. The well has been enclosed with an ornamental building, containing the figure of an angel by Baron Marochetti; the surrounding wall is gothic, with rows of lancet windows, with trefoiled mullions, and the entrance is closed with handsome cast-iron doors. The garden is well laid out and kept in good order.

(3.)—The Satti Chauraghát is the landing place on the Ganges (near the Memorial Gardens) where the whole of the Garrison was shot or captured

when it left the entrenchments on the Náná's promise of safe conduct to Allahabad.

The Government tannery, the Muir Mills, Elgin Mills, and Christ Church are the only other buildings of any note in Cawnpore, but they do not require any particular description.

The city itself, from its modern origin, has no remarkable buildings.

The railway bridge over the Ganges is remarkable as being the first bridge across that river so low down in its course. It was commenced in 1869 and finished in 1875; it is 2,830 feet long, and 60 feet above low water-mark; it has cost about 20 lakhs, including approaches, &c.

26-6-'77.

A. COTTERELL TUPP.

MEERUT CITY.

M E E R U T .

A CITY IN THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES.

1. *Position, area, &c.*—In $29^{\circ} 0' 41''$ north latitude, and $77^{\circ} 45' 3''$ east longitude, covering with its suburbs an area of 401 square acres, with 18,951 houses, a population of 81,386 souls, and a municipal revenue of £3,243; is the first city of the Meerut division, and the sixth of the North-Western Provinces. Meerut is 735 feet above the sea level.

2. *Approaches.*—Meerut is not situated on any navigable river, and is therefore only approachable by land; but it has numerous main roads passing through it, and is accessible from almost any direction by metalled and bridged roads.

It is approached from the south by the eastern branch of the Grand Trunk Road, which goes from Bulandshahr by Saharanpur to Amballa; this runs to the east of the city and right through the civil station and cantonments; from the south-east by the road from Moradabad via Garhmuktesar, which here joins the Grand Trunk Road; from the north-east by the road from Bijnor; and from the north-west by the road from Karnal. All these roads concentrate at Meerut and afford ready means of access to the surrounding districts.

3. *Walls and fortification.*—Meerut is not fortified in any way, nor has it any walls. The public buildings, barracks, railway station, &c., are all unfortified, but the city was originally surrounded by a wall and a ditch pierced by nine gates.

Meerut is the headquarters of the Meerut military division, which comprises the garrisons of Roorkee, Laudour, Dehra, and Delhi.

4. *Site.*—Meerut is situated rather to the north of the centre of the district and about half-way between the Ganges and the Jumna, which are respectively 25 and 29 miles distant to the east and west. Its site is a perfectly level plain, only broken by the Abu nála, a torrent which runs right through the civil station and falls into the Káli nádi a few miles below it.

Approaching from the south the city is first met, bordered on the south by the Baghpat road, which joins the Grand Trunk Road at the south-eastern corner of the city. To the east of the city is the Surajkund, a large tank called

the monkey tank, and north-east of that again is the large central jail. North of the city and between that and cantonments is the civil station, with the Grand Trunk Road running right through it, and cutting the mall about the centre. A circular road runs round the Dragoon Bazar, which is to the west of the station ; it leaves the mall at the west end, and turning south, and then east, reaches the Grand Trunk Road a little south of the mall. North of the civil station and mall are the cantonments ; the cavalry lines being on the west (next the railway), the European infantry in the centre, and the horse and foot artillery to the east. North of all are the various parade grounds. The Panjab and Delhi Railway runs parallel to the whole city and station about a mile west of it, and there are two railway stations, one for the city, due west of it, and the other $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles further north, and due west of the cavalry lines. North of the city railway station and between the railway and the civil station are the native cavalry lines, the racecourse, and the native infantry lines.

The sadr or cantonment bazar is between the city and the civil station and east of the racecourse.

5. *Houses.*—Meerut is of very modern and purely English origin, and there are therefore no houses in it with any pretensions to architectural beauty or grandeur. Some of those inhabited by the wealthier merchants and traders are substantially but plainly built of brick and roofed with timber and plaster or tiles, but the majority are very commonly and poorly built, either of burnt brick cemented with mud, or of mud bricks, or merely layers of mud.

Of the 18,951 houses in the city, only 7,986 are of masonry and 10,965 are of mud, and most of the streets have therefore a poor and temporary appearance, partly due to their origin as a bazar built hurriedly to supply the needs of the European troops which were suddenly quartered here.

6. *Foundation and early history.*—There are four or five derivations of the name of Meerut, but nothing is really known of its origin. The oldest monument connected with it is the Asoka column now at Delhi, which was erected by the Buddhist Emperor Asoka in the 3rd century before Christ : it was removed from Meerut and set up at Delhi by the Emperor Firoz Shah in 1256 : it was thrown down and broken up by an explosion in 1719, and was erected by the British in 1867.

7. *Hindu and Musalmán times.*—Meerut was first captured by Salár Masaud early in the 11th century, and again by Mahmud of Ghazni in 1019, a third time by Kutb-ud-din Aibak in 1191, and fourthly by Timúr in 1399, when it was completely sacked and destroyed. In 1788 the Mahrattas took it from Ghulám Kádir after a severe struggle. In 1805 it was a ruinous

depopulated town with no trade, and an income of only £253 in four years, so that the modern Meerut is of quite recent origin. It soon began to recover, the walls were broken down, and roads brought into it at all points.

8. *English rule.*—Cantonments were first established in Meerut in 1806, and cavalry and infantry barracks were erected in 1808. In 1872 the cantonments contained 29,000 inhabitants, exclusive of European soldiers.

9. Meerut was soon made the headquarters of the division, comprising the districts of Dehra, Saháranpur, Muzaffarnagar, Meerut, Bulandshahr, and Ali-garh, and of a civil and sessions judgeship, including the Meerut and Bulandshahr districts. From the time of our acquisition of the district in 1804, it remained peacefully in our possession till 1857, when it became the starting point and focus of the great mutiny. On the 13th April in that year the house of Brij Mohan, a trooper of the 3rd Cavalry, who had used the cartridges suspected of being made with cow's fat, was burnt down, and on the 23rd some of the 3rd refused to use the cartridges served out to them. They were tried by court-martial, and on the 9th of May 80 of them were sentenced to ten years' imprisonment. On the 10th a cry was raised in the sadr bazar and in the native infantry lines that the Europeans were going to take the magazine, and from that moment the mutiny and massacre began. The 20th and 11th Regiments of native infantry mutinied and shot their own and other officers, and the natives of the bazars and villages rushed in and began to plunder and murder. A party of the 3rd Cavalry released their 80 comrades from the new jail, and the sepoys broke open the old jail and released 700 prisoners. After this every European who fell into the hands of the rebels was murdered. All the rebels marched away that night to Delhi, and on the 12th May the fugitives from Delhi arrived at Meerut with the news of the massacre at Delhi on the 11th. On the 27th Sir Archdale Wilson's force marched on Meerut, and on the 31st defeated the rebels in the battle of the Hindan. On the 3rd of June the news of the mutiny at Bareilly and on the 4th of that at Moradabad reached Meerut, but no further disturbance of order occurred at Meerut itself, as the large body of European troops there sufficed to hold the city and the villagers in check.

10. *Population and castes.*—In the census of 1872 the total population of the city and station of Meerut was found to be 81,386; this was composed as follows:—

Hindus	... {	Males	26,470
		Females	21,136
						Total	47,606

Musalmáns,	{	Males	17,440
		Females	16,092
					Total	...	33,532
Others	...	{ Males	125
		Females	123
					Total	...	248
Total males	...	44,035 Total females	...	37,351			

11. No return of castes is given in the census report, but the occupations of all above 15 years of age are noted, and those which exceeded 50 in number are as follows :—

Bakers	...	82	Government servants	...	157	Porters (load carriers)	...	159
Barbers	...	415	Grain-dealers	...	185	Prisoners	...	831
Beggars	...	566	Grass-cutters	...	209	Potters	...	137
Blacksmiths	...	84	Grain-parchers	...	85	Priests, temple or ghát, and acharaj	...	139
Braziers	...	91	Grocers	...	63	Parohits (family priests),	...	61
Bricklayers	...	370	Grooms	...	216	Schoolmasters	...	75
Butchers	...	254	Herdsmen	...	59	Servants	...	8,974
Carpenters	...	250	Labourers	...	4,501	Shopkeepers	...	2,526
Carpet-makers	...	87	Lac workers and sell- ers	...	55	Shoemakers and sell- ers	...	353
Cart-drivers	...	138	Landowners	...	320	Singers and musicians	...	179
Cooks	...	141	Leather dyers	...	92	Sweepers	...	671
Confectioners	...	139	Lime sellers	...	66	Tailors	...	600
Contractors	...	97	Merchants	...	286	Tobacco sellers	...	69
Cotton-cleaners	...	114	Ditto, cloth	...	262	Vinegar sellers	...	185
Cultivators	...	972	Milk and butter sellers,	...	249	Washermen	...	356
Doctors	...	76	Money-changers	...	90	Water-carriers	...	446
Dyers	...	102	Money-lenders	...	121	Weavers	...	984
Fishmongers	...	89	Oil-makers	...	154	Wood sellers	...	95
Flour dealers	...	224	Painters and varnishers,	...	143			
Fruit sellers	...	85	Pandits	...	247			
Goldsmiths	...	190	Pedlars	...	109			
Gold-lace-makers and wire-drawers	...	71	Petty dealers	...	62			

As regards the proportions of the sexes and religions, there are 44 males to 37 females, and 127 Hindús to every 100 Musalmáus.

12. In the census of 1872 the number of houses and enclosures was as follows :—

Enclosures	... 14,595 {	Hindú	8,702
		Musalmán	5,851
		Christian, &c.	42

		Hindú	11,238
Houses	... 18,951	Musalmán	7,654
		Christian, &c.	59
		Hindú	4,790
Masonry houses	... 7,986	Musalmán	3,185
		Christian, &c.	11
		Hindú	6,448
Mud houses	... 10,965	Musalmán	4,469
		Christian, &c.	48

The population was divided as regards nationality, ages, occupation, and education as follows :—

NATIONALITY.		Hindús.		Musalmáns.		Christians, &c.		Total.	
		Males.		Males.		Males.		Males.	
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Hindústánis	...	26,384	21,076	17,376	16,068	125	123	43,885	37,267
Bengális	...	14	7	55	21	69	28
Panjábís	...	72	53	72	53
Afgháns	9	3	9	3
Total	...	26,470	21,136	17,440	16,092	125	123	44,035	37,351
AGE.									
Up to 15 years	...	8,524	7,210	6,111	5,608	51	34	14,686	12,847
15 to 20 ditto	...	2,820	2,435	1,865	1,993	12	11	4,697	4,439
20 to 30 ditto	...	5,889	4,674	3,721	3,871	14	33	9,624	8,078
30 to 40 ditto	...	4,375	3,014	2,425	2,154	16	14	6,816	5,192
40 to 50 ditto	...	2,652	1,843	1,685	1,464	16	18	4,363	3,325
50 to 60 ditto	...	1,511	1,248	1,005	910	11	8	2,527	2,166
Above 60 ditto	...	699	712	618	587	5	5	1,322	1,304
Total	...	26,470	21,136	17,440	16,092	125	123	44,035	37,351
OCCUPATION.									
Landowners	...	217	168	154	165	371	323
Agriculturists	...	1,297	658	324	196	1,621	854
Non-agriculturists	...	24,956	20,320	16,982	15,731	125	123	42,043	36,174
Total	...	26,470	21,136	17,440	16,092	125	123	44,035	37,351
EDUCATION.									
12 years of age	...	279	...	152	...	2	2	433	2
12 to 20 ditto	...	327	...	142	...	6	2	475	2
Above 20 ditto	...	1,618	...	420	...	5	...	2,043	...
Total educated	...	2,924	...	714	...	13	4	2,951	4

13. *Trade and manufactures.*—There is a considerable trade in Meerut, but it is not essentially a trading centre.

Since the opening of the railway from Gháziabad in February, 1867, and to the Panjab in January, 1869, trade has improved, but not greatly. The Municipal Act has been in force since 1868, and the affairs of the municipality are managed by a committee of 15 members. The income is derived from octroi duty, and fell at the rate of Rs. 0-8-3 per head of the city population in 1873. The chief imports are grain, sugar, ghi, oil and oil-seeds, fuel, building materials, and tobacco.

14. *Buildings, &c.*—From its modern origin there are few places or buildings of any note in Meerut, but the following may be noticed as the chief:—

(1.)—The Suraj Kund, or monkey tank, east of the city, which was constructed by Jawahir Mal in 1714. It is filled from the Abu nála, except in May and June, and is surrounded by small temples, dharmsalas, &c.

(2.)—The Dargah of Sháh Pír is a fine structure of red sandstone, erected about 1620 by Nurjahan, wife of the Emperor Jahángir.

(3.)—The Jamá Masjid, or great mosque, is said to have been built in 1019 by Hasan Mahdi, Vazir of Mahmud of Ghazni, and was repaired by Humayun.

(4.)—The Makbirahs (mausoleum) of Abu Muhammad Kamboh (1658), Salar Masaud Ghazi (1194), and Abu Yar Khan (1577) are noteworthy, and there are two large Imambarahs, one near the Kamboh gate and another in the Zahidi muhalla.

(5.)—The Meerut church, built in 1819-21 of brick and stucco, 150 feet long and 84 feet wide, and able to contain 3,000 persons. The spire is lofty and handsome, and can be seen from the Himaláyás.

A. COTTERELL TUPP.

27-6-'77.

